

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF TEMPERATURE  
MICROSTRUCTURE IN THE OCEAN

by

Peyton Marshall Magruder, Jr.

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# United States Naval Postgraduate School



## THESIS

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April 1970

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Some Characteristics of Temperature Microstructure  
in the Ocean

by

Peyton Marshall Magruder, Jr.  
Lieutenant Commander, United States Navy  
B.S., United States Naval Academy, 1962

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## ABSTRACT

The background of microstructure and its effect on sound propagation is reviewed. The expendable bathythermograph (XBT) system and current digitizing procedures are evaluated to determine their adequacy in investigating vertical thermal microstructure. Several methods of microthermal analysis are proposed. Temperature gradient versus depth plots are used to analyze data from several ocean regions - Atlantic Coastal, Andaman Sea, Eastern North Pacific, and the northern boundary of the Gulf Stream. Analysis of these data suggest a water mass dependence of the thermal microstructure. The significance of the small-scale structure to Naval operations is discussed.

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## I. SIGNIFICANCE OF MICROTHERMAL STRUCTURE

Naval interest in the thermal structure of the ocean is presently centered on gross features such as sea surface temperature, mixed layer depth, thermocline gradient, and depth to the bottom of the thermocline. Some attention has been given, especially in the Canadian Navy, to the transients in the mixed layer [Tully, 1964] and their possible association with internal waves. The above gross features are used primarily as a means of classifying thermal structure.

Technological developments have led to measurements which indicate the thermal structure is made-up of layers of varying thickness; from less than a centimeter to tens of meters [Stommel and Federov, 1967; Osborn, 1969; for example].

Of the variables affecting sound velocity in the ocean, temperature has the greatest effect. The presence of variations in temperature, or temperature gradients, causes sound velocity fluctuations to occur. Research on the effects of the thermal layers on sound in the ocean show that further investigation in theory and experiment is required. Small scale sound velocity variations cause irregular bending of sound rays.

The microstructure can affect attenuation, forward and backward scattering, reverberation, reflection, and refraction which can converge or diverge the energy in a sound beam [Meyer and Romberg, 1963]. The physical features of the microthermal structure must be adequately described before their effects upon acoustic propagation can be fully understood.

The purpose of this thesis is to review the present knowledge concerning microstructure as measured by expendable bathythermographs (XBT), to evaluate the capability of the XBT in measuring microthermal structure, to develop a scheme of quantitatively examining the microthermal structure, and to test this scheme on real data.

## II. REVIEW OF PRESENT KNOWLEDGE

### A. MICROTHERMAL STRUCTURE IN THE OCEAN

Prior to 1937, vertical thermal structure was measured at discrete points using reversing thermometers. This method provided a point-to-point analysis of the vertical structure at one location. Even using point-to-point measurements, it was clear that the temperature variability decreased with depth in most regions. In fact, the most common analysis of the temperature and salinity data, T-S correlation, usually ignored the upper 100 meters or so. However, this same analysis showed that in many ocean regions, in deep water, (e.g., below 1000 to 2000 m), the variability was on the order of the instrument error [Sverdrup, Johnson and Flemming, 1942]. This result was not unexpected because the gradients in the deep ocean became smaller. The discrete measurements of the Nansen cast are not suitable for studying small scale variability.

The development of the mechanical bathythermograph (MBT) by Spilhaus [1938] provided the first convenient means of measuring a continuous profile of temperature. The mechanical bathythermograph was widely used during World War II. A large number of bathythermograms with double traces, which could not be explained as instrument errors, were discovered [Urick and Searfoss, 1948]. The double traces indicated that small-scale horizontal and/or vertical temperature variations occurred between the lowering and raising of the MBT. Urick and Searfoss [1949] recognized that this small-scale microstructure could be significant to sound propagation, depending on the size and shape of the inhomogeneity.

Horizontal microthermal structure was measured by Holder in 1944 using a thermopile mounted on a submarine. He detected horizontal temperature differences of  $0.02^{\circ}\text{F}$  over distances of about 10 m [Smith, 1967]. Measurements of these horizontal temperature variations were also made by Urick and Searfoss [1948, 1949] in July of 1948 near Key West, Florida. With a thermocouple mounted on the conning tower and, later, its bow, a submarine proceeded at a constant speed and depth, while the probe measured the water temperature to a resolution of  $0.003^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

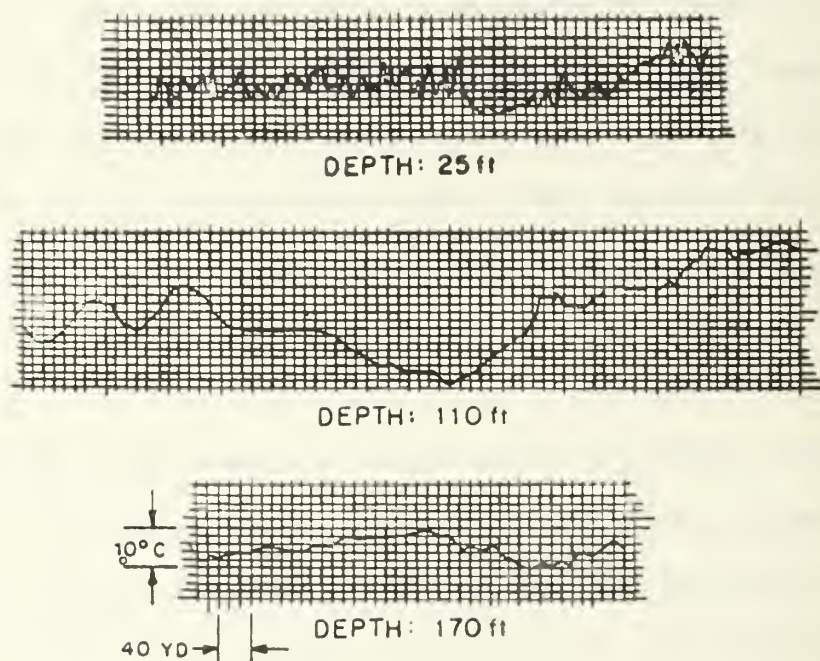


Figure 1. Microthermal Variations at Various Depths [Urick and Searfoss, 1948].

Urick and Searfoss [1949] calculated the peak-to-peak root-mean-square (rms) variation for peaks in excess of 20 percent of the total



variation in a record calling this the root-mean-square maximum (rmsm). A significant difference between the value of rmsm in the mixed layer and in the thermocline was observed. In the mixed layer a mean rmsm value of 0.013C was observed. In the thermocline, the mean value was 0.450C. The rmsm increased with depth in the mixed layer and decreased with depth in the thermocline. Applying Taylor's hypothesis, the mean horizontal thermal "patch size" was found to vary from 5 to 30 m in the mixed layer and from 30 to 200 m in the thermocline region [Urick and Searfoss, 1949].

Liebermann [1951] mounted a sensitive platinum-resistance thermometer and a thermocouple on the periscope of a submarine. The platinum-resistance element could resolve spatial temperature variations on the order of 10 cm in horizontal distances as the submarine proceeded at a constant speed of a few meters per second at a fixed depth (Figure 2).

To characterize the temperature fluctuations, he used the autocorrelation function. "Patch size" was defined as the distance of the microthermal structure, within which the temperature variations maintained coherence.

The function is given by:

$$R(\rho) = \int_0^{\infty} [T(x) \cdot T(x+\rho_0)] dx. \quad (1)$$

His results could be fit equally well by an exponential,

$$R(\rho) = e^{-\rho/a} \quad (2)$$

or the Gaussian,

$$R(\rho) = e^{-(\rho/a)^2} \quad (3)$$

where:

$T(x)$  = temperature at some point  $x$ ;

$T(x+\rho_0)$  = temperature at another point displaced a distance  $\rho_0$   
from  $x$ ;

$\rho$  = autocorrelation distance;

$\langle \bar{\rho} \rangle = a$  = "patch size".

Whereas, the exponential function fitted the data points and decayed rapidly as  $\rho$  increased (Figure 2), it did not have a zero slope at the origin, thus, the exponential function was not appropriate for very small correlation distance (e.g., a few cm or less) because of heat conductivity in sea water. He proposed the Gaussian function to correct this difficulty, reasoning that thermal conductivity would prevent any discontinuity in the temperature field [Liebermann, 1951].

Liebermann assumed that the thermal microstructure represented a cloud of spheres with a Rayleigh distribution having a mean size value of the correlation distance and therefore yielding

$$R(\rho) = R(a) = e^{-1}. \quad (4)$$

Using this definition, the mean size of the inhomogeneities,  $a$ , was found to equal 60 cm in the ocean (Figure 2).

Piip [1961] investigated the sound velocity microstructure in the sound channel off Bermuda with a NBS velocimeter. It was noted that a number of thin steps remained over periods of hours, some oscillating 30 m in depth in a three-hour period. At the same station and same depth, sound velocity changes of one m/sec in a few hours were common and "nearly the rule". The sound velocity axis was observed to change 150 m in depth and 3.5 m/sec over a three-month period. Piip showed that the base of the main thermocline (about 1000 to 1300 m) exhibited



relatively large and rapid changes in sound velocity in an inhomogeneous region in a constant state of fluctuation.

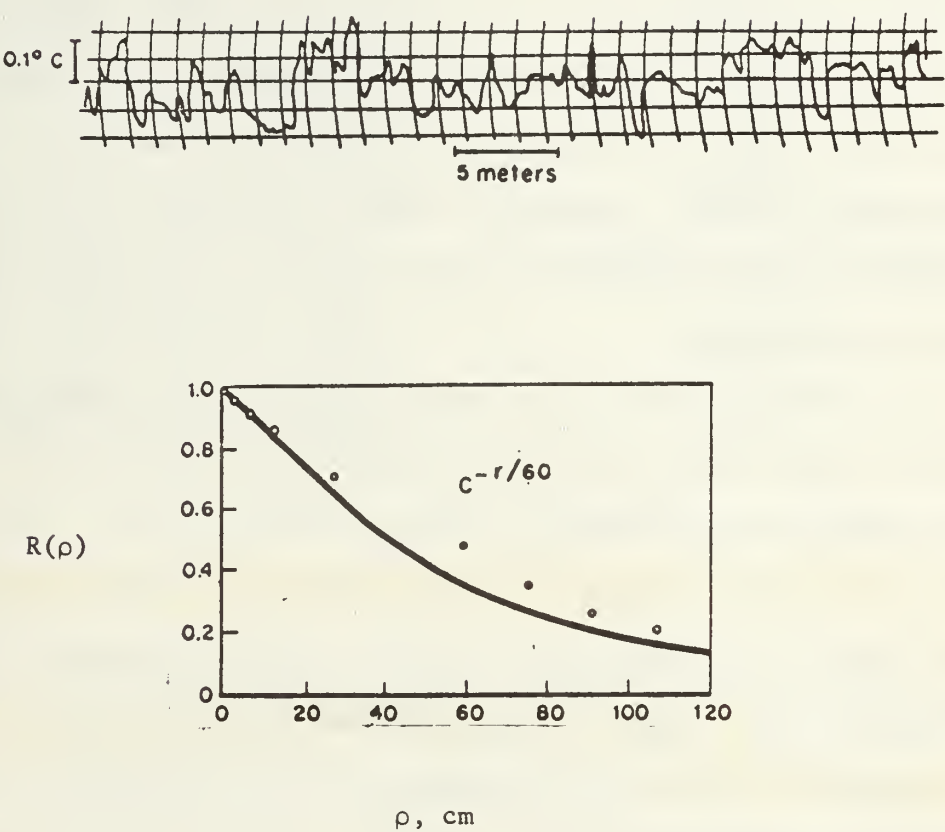


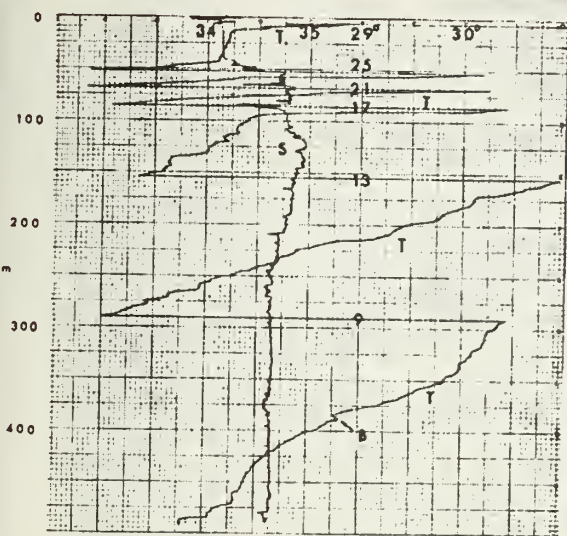
Figure 2. Temperature Fluctuations and Associated Correlation Function  
(After Liebermann)

Small-scale temperature and salinity structure was measured with a salinity, temperature, and depth recorder (STD) by Stommel and Federov [1967] near Timor and Mindinao during July of 1965. Their measurements revealed that the vertical microstructure actually consisted of very thin high-gradient layers. The thin layers were separated by thicker layers of nearly homogeneous (isothermal or isohaline) water, i.e., step-like in appearance on their STD traces. By following a discrete

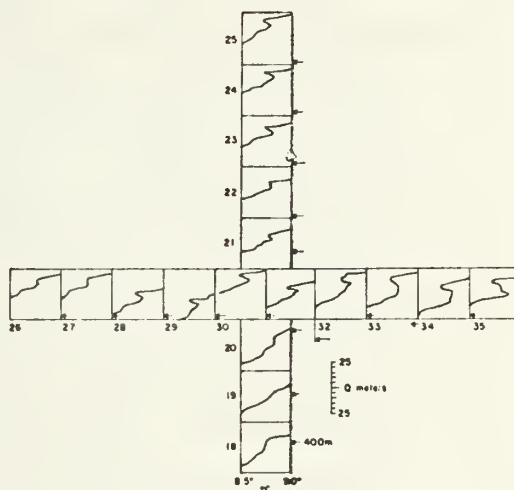
feature from one cast to the next, homogeneous layers were found to be continuous from two to 20 km horizontally and to range in thickness from two to 40 m (Figure 3). A boot-like feature was found at the bottom of the mixed layer (Figure 4). At a depth of 200 to 300 m, the mean thermal gradient was about 0.040C/m. In the thin steps, the gradient was less than 0.003C/m, and in the homogeneous steps, the thermal gradient was greater than 0.350C/m. Stommel and Federov concluded that the ocean consisted of nearly homogeneous layers separated by steps with extremely high thermal gradients.

Tate and Howe [1968], in the summer of 1966 in the Northwestern Atlantic, used an STD to look at the thermocline stratification in the Mediterranean Water intrusion at a depth of 1280 to 1500 m. They found layering with steps varying on the order of 0.17 to 0.35C in temperature, from 0.02 to 0.055 o/oo in salinity, and from thickness of 15 to 30 m (Figure 5). A step's average temperature change of 0.25C produced a  $\sigma_t$  change of -0.044, while the average salinity step of 0.044 o/oo produced a  $\sigma_t$  change of +0.039. The resulting change of  $\sigma_t$  (-0.005) gave a slightly stable layer system in a situation which was clearly one of opposing salinity and temperature density gradients.

Cooper and Stommel [1968], using an STD, found the main thermocline in the Sargasso Sea to consist of regular salinity and temperature steps of homogeneous layers three to five meters thick, separated by transitional layers 10 to 15 meters thick, with temperature changes of 0.30 to 0.50C and salinity changes of 0.04 to 0.10 o/oo (Figure 6). The horizontal extent of these steps was between 400 to 1000 meters. The main thermocline contained up to 100 steps on each cast.



a.



b.

Figure 3.a. Photographic copy of actual STD trace (not retouched) of station 21 off Mindinao. Depth scale is 500 m, each small division being 5 m. The salinity curve, labeled S, has the smallest division being 0.05 o/oo. The temperature, labeled T, has a smallest division of 0.05C. The lamina B is so labeled. Because the pens cannot both traverse the same path mechanically, the temperature curve is offset downward by 5 m and always reads 5 m too deep. The salinity scale is not offset in depth. Uniform corrections for salinity of -0.9 o/oo and temperature of 0.07C have not been applied.

Figure 3.b. A composite chart-graph for lamina B off Mindinao. Each square is 0.05C wide (8.5 to 9.0C) and 50 m high. The small arrow indicates a depth of 400 m in each square. Numbers in the lower left hand corners are the station numbers. The distances from stations 18 to 25 and 26 to 35 are about 10 nm. For lamina B, the large geographical extent of this small lamina is self-evident.

[Stommel and Federov, 1967]

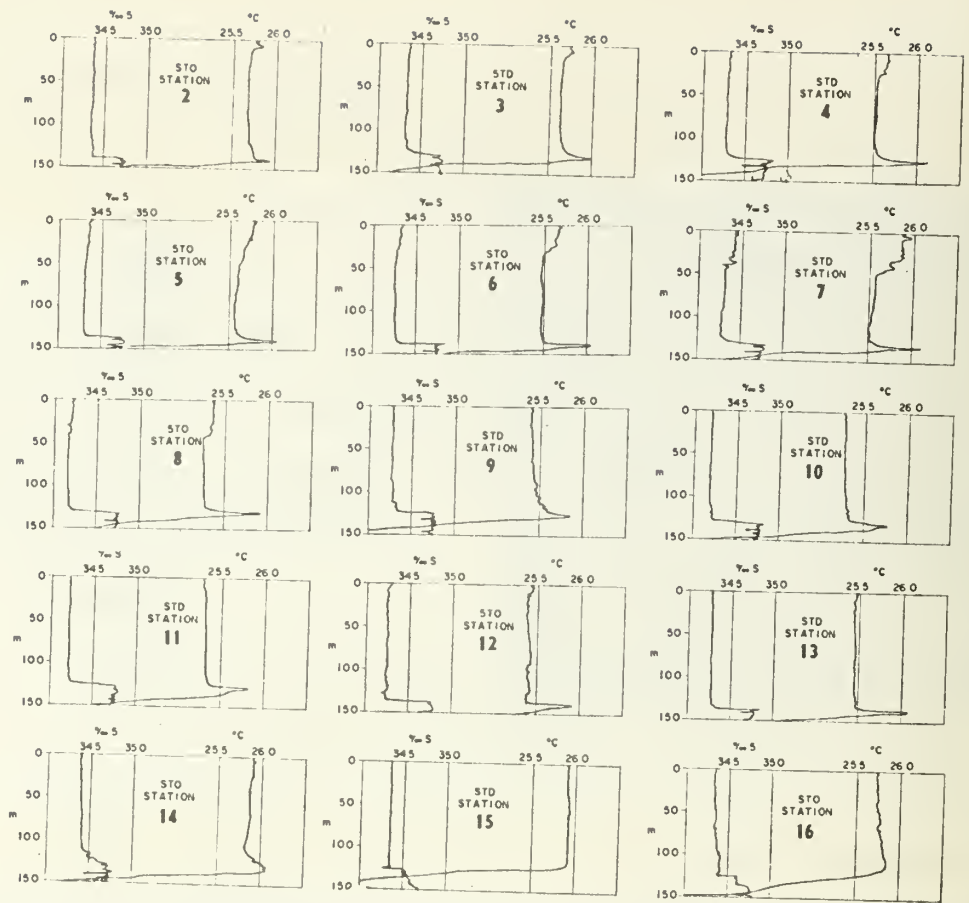


Figure 4. From the soundings in the mixed layer off Timor, gross differences in the properties in different locations are self-evident. There is considerable variation in vertical structure but each sounding shows a nearly homogeneous region near the surface (station 13) but some stations (like 7) have shallow irregular layers overlying the mixed layer.

[Stommel and Federov, 1967]

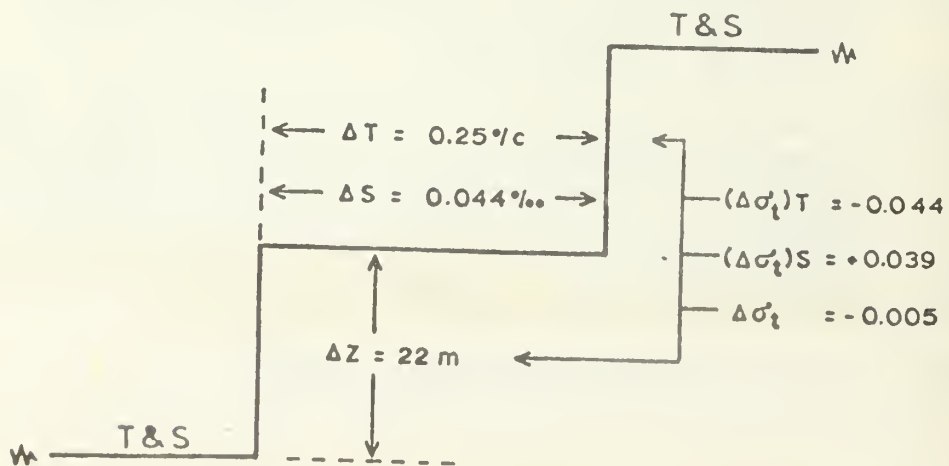


Figure 5. A typical step in Mediterranean Water [Tait and Howe, 1968].



Woods [1968, 1968a] investigated the microstructure in the summer thermocline off Malta using a temperature-gradient meter for obtaining the thermal gradient between two thermistors set 50, 25 or 10 cm apart on a vertical staff. The resolution of the thermal gradient was within 0.01C per thermistor separation distance. An additional thermistor recorded temperature. Woods plotted profiles of the thermal gradient and temperature versus depth (Figures 7, 8 and 9). Using time-lapse photography, Woods obtained pictures of streaks left in the wakes of free-dropping dye pellets for shear measurements. A dye-packēt array tied between moored, submerged floats injecting dye into selected levels of the thermocline, indicated that the thermocline was divided into layers a few meters thick. These layers were characterized by weak thermal gradients, less than 0.001C/m, and by turbulence with a mean velocity of less than one mm/sec. The layers were separated by sheets only centimeters thick. (Sometimes, he detected sheets up to a meter thick but they appeared as aggregates of the 10 cm thick sheets.) The sheets were characterized by strong thermal gradients up to 0.05C/cm and little or no turbulence. Mature sheets contained thin laminar-flow zones in their centers. Neighboring layers had dissimilar properties indicating different salinities, velocities, and turbidities. This suggested different trajectories and a very slow exchange of properties across the intervening sheets. If turbulence was small, flux exchange was small; therefore, the exchange had to rely on molecular processes, which were very slow indeed.

Individual layers were followed horizontally for distances up to 72 km by soundings from high-speed launches. Layers were identified on

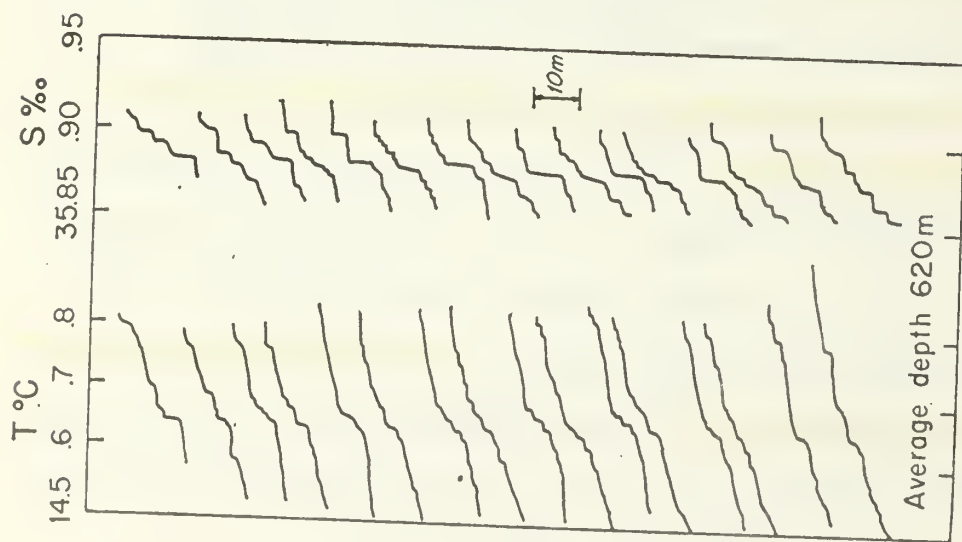


Figure 6. Steps in the Saragasso Sea made by taking several temperature and salinity soundings in rapid succession across a single "homogeneous" step [Cooper and Stommel, 1968].

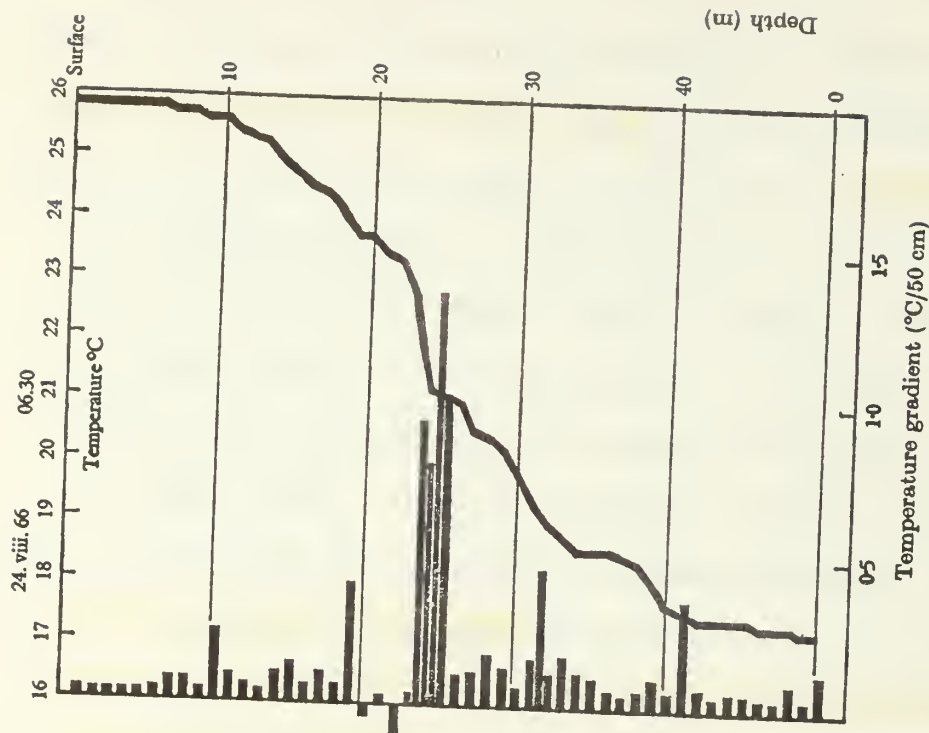


Figure 7. A typical temperature-depth and temperature gradient-depth values obtained by Woods with a 50 cm thermistor spacing [Woods, 1968].

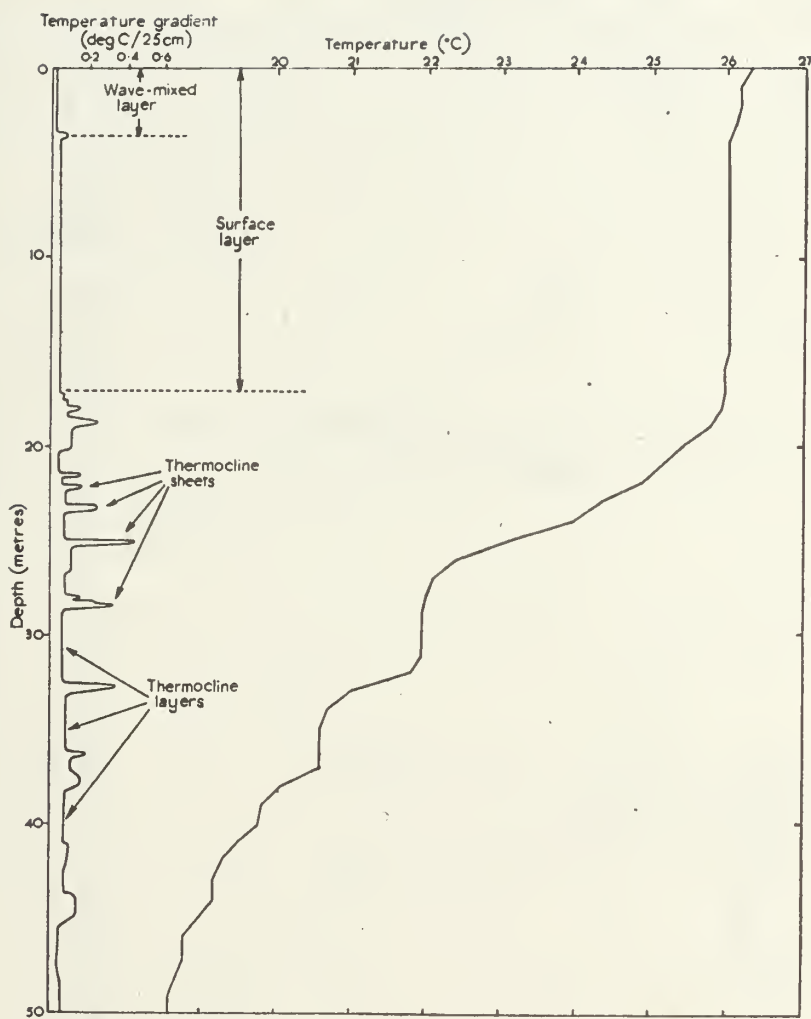


Figure 8. Temperature and Temperature-Gradient Soundings for Maltese Waters, 14 September 1967 [Woods, 1968a].

Temperature 0918-0929 local time, (i.e., GMT + 1).

Temperature gradient 1132-1145 local time.

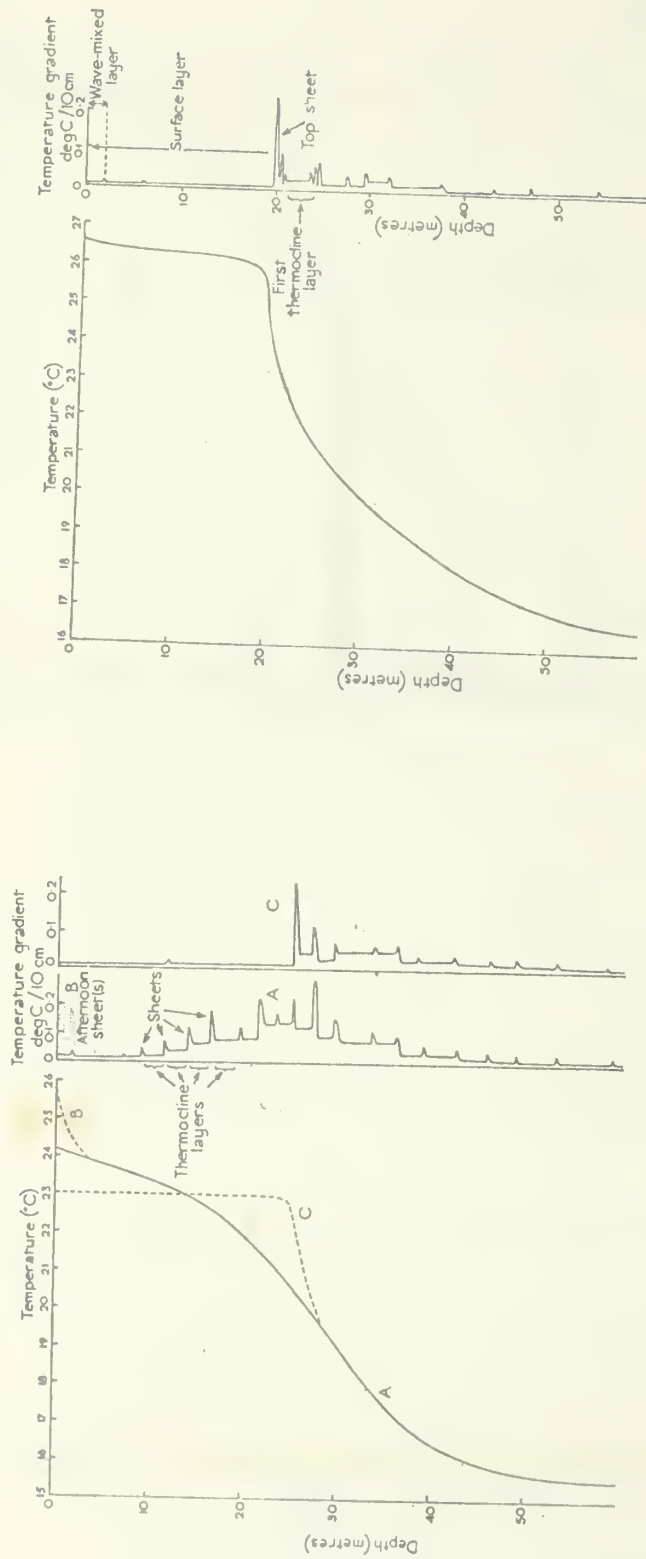


Figure 9. Idealized Temperature and Temperature-Gradient Profiles for Maltese Waters in Early July and Late August [Woods, 1968a].

#### Early July

A Calm weather (morning).

B 'Afternoon effect' (surface warming without wave-mixing).

C Mixed surface-layer following an extended period of rough seas.

#### Late August

Moderate seas.



successive soundings for many hours, thus confirming the results of Stommel and Federov.

The dye experiments showed that in a thermocline sheet there was a central laminar-flow region only a few centimeters thick. Dye was spread in this region by internal waves to form a "broad carpet of color". This colored sheet made it possible to photograph the internal waves as they crossed it. Wave-lengths between 5 and 10 m were dominant and appeared in long, coherent trains, each associated with a single sheet. They had heights up to 1.0 m, a phase speed of 2.5 cm/sec and periods of about 5 min. These waves only affected a single sheet, being much shorter than the long internal waves which move the entire thermocline.

A sheet was defined as stable when it appeared smooth everywhere; this indicated laminar flow. When a wave passed over a sheet, shear had its greatest effects at the crest and trough. Wave shear and drift shear interacted either cancelling or reinforcing each other causing a sheet to become unstable and patchy.

Wavelets, about 75 cm in length, caused banding to appear parallel to the crests and troughs. These wavelets generally formed, grew, and broke in a period of less than two minutes. Upon breaking in classical fashion, a second smaller breaker was generally thrown forward. The wavelets had a maximum height of about 20 cm. After breaking, a turbulence region remained for about 5 minutes, and the scar in the sheet remained for several hours. These scars were a common feature in thermocline sheets. The thinnest sheet observed to become unstable had a thickness of 3 cm; the thickest was 30 cm. The great majority were between 8 and 15 cm.

Transient thermoclines [Tully, 1964] which occur sporadically between the surface and the top of the thermocline were considered as further examples of sheets. Woods divides the thermocline into a half-dozen or so layers of low shear and moderate thermal gradient separated by thin liminar flow sheets on intense shear and thermal gradient. He discussed the important aspect of heat transfer through such a layered ocean. He suggested that the molecular heat transfer through the high gradient stable layers was negligible, but that heat transfer does take place through the turbulent scars from one layer to another as an effect of the breaking of the internal waves.

The use of the Ramsey SVTP (sound velocity, temperature, and pressure) probe provides a digital output of these parameters. This instrument has an accuracy of  $\pm 0.01^\circ\text{C}$  and  $\pm 0.25$  percent of depth with a precision of  $\pm 0.08$  m/sec in sound velocity [Lovett, 1968]. In view of the plus-or-minus-one count for electronic counters, small-scale features, i.e., less than  $\pm 0.01^\circ\text{C}$  and  $\pm 1$  m in depth, are ambiguous. Lovett [1968] discussed the thermal gradients determined with this instrument (Figure 10). The 10 m depth increments he used eliminated some microstructure; however, using 5 m increments introduced random readout errors.

Ingham [1968] used an STD probe to investigate the mixed layer in tropical waters. The vertical salinity and temperature structures forming the "isothermal" and "isohaline" layers were generally analogous in the near-surface layers. The difference in the depths of these two layers exceeded 7.5 m in 45 percent of the casts and 17.5 m in 31 percent as shown by Figure 11 [Ingham, 1968]. Microstructure effects on sound velocity in the near-surface layers would depend on salinity in some ocean regions.

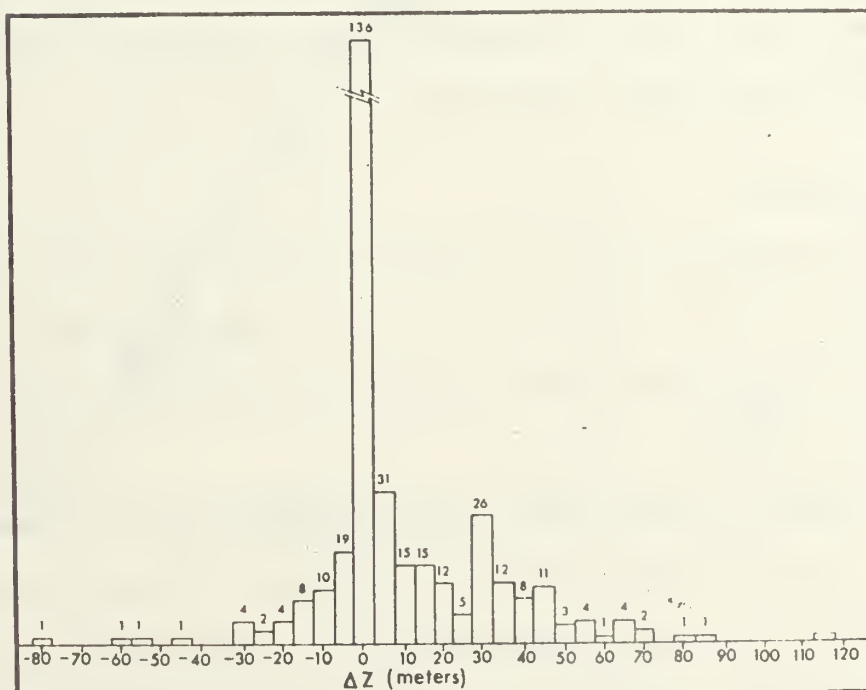
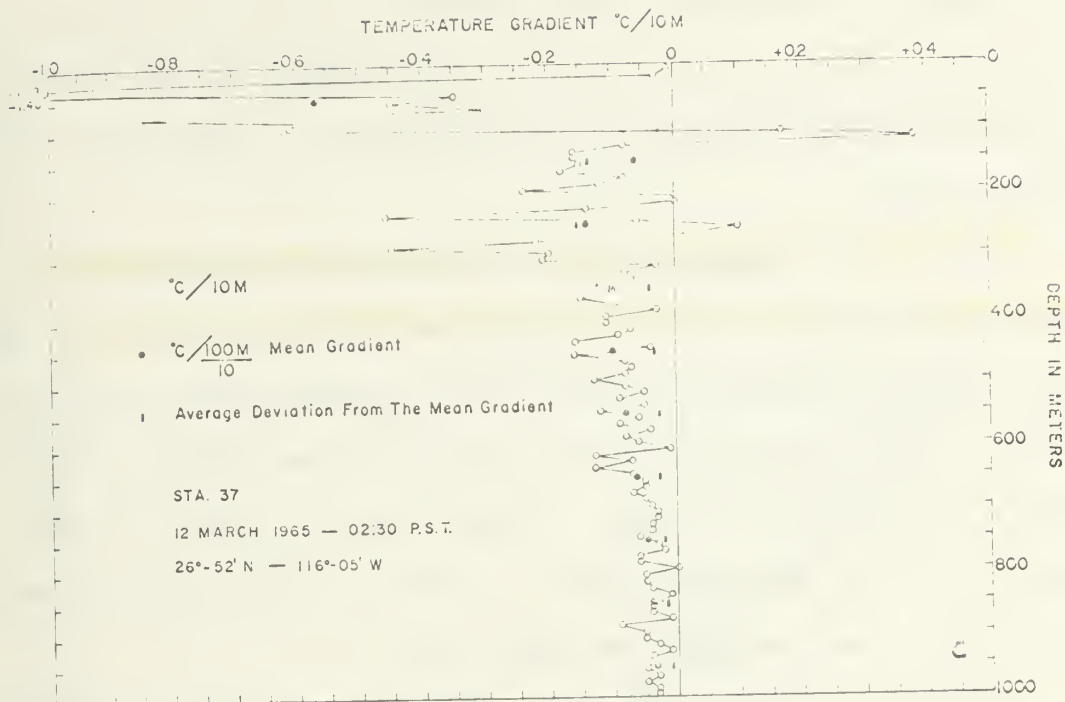


Figure 11. Histogram of Depth Differences  $\Delta Z$  of the Isothermal and Isohaline Layer Depths [Ingham, 1968].

Pingree [1969] using an STD, recorded analogue signals on tape. He made fine-scale plots of salinity and temperature. In particular, he investigated the stability of the deep water, i.e., about 500 to 2000 m (Figure 12).

Osborn [1969] using a free-falling temperature gradient meter obtained excellent profiles of temperature gradient (Figure 13). Off San Diego, the horizontal extent of the layers was greater than 750 meters in the seasonal thermocline, but only a few hundred meters at depths greater than 400 meters. He noted the layers were, in fact, made up of even finer layers with a thickness of only a few centimeters. His average sheet was about one meter thick.

Recent work by Neshbya, Neal, and Denner [1969] using the expendable bathythermograph manufactured by General Motors Defense Laboratories, obtained records of temperature steps (Figures 14, 15 and 16). While on Ice Station T-3 in the Arctic (near 84-38N, 128-22W), they lowered XBT probes by hand. The Ice Station results are the first XBT micro-structure records without ship motion.

## B. APPLICATIONS

Urick and Searfoss [1949] calculated theoretically that a sound ray would be bent through an angle of only 3.7 sec by the average inhomogeneity in the mixed layer but as much as 2.1 min of arc in the thermocline.

Sheehy [1950] measured sonar signal fluctuation as functions of depth and range. He found the coefficient of variation, defined as the standard deviation of the amplitudes expressed as a percentage of the mean amplitude, varied as the square root of range and did not appear to be a function of depth.

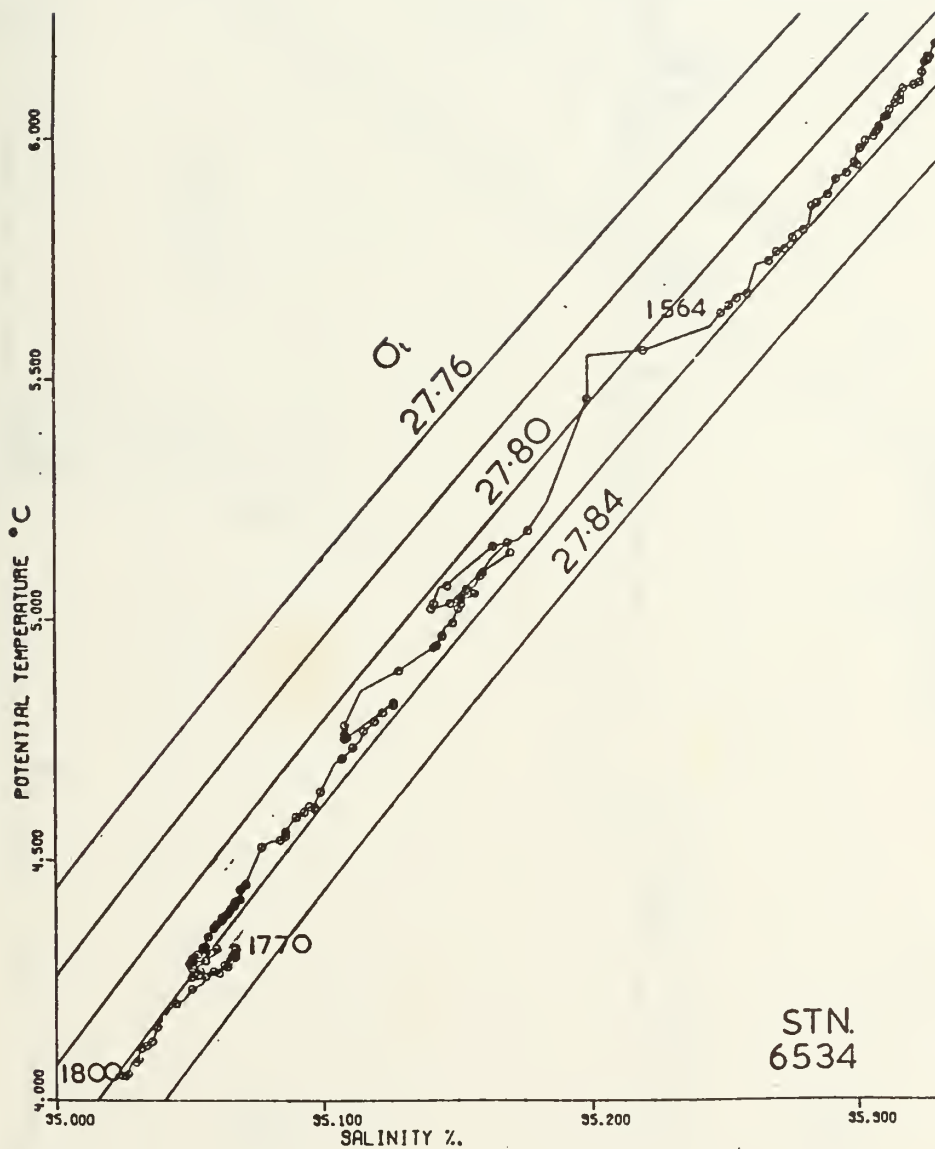


Figure 12. T-S Curve from 1500 to 1800 m with a Value Every Meter. Circles Represent Increments of 2 m in Depth [Pingree, 1969].





Figure 13. Temperature Gradient-Depth Values [Osborn, 1969].

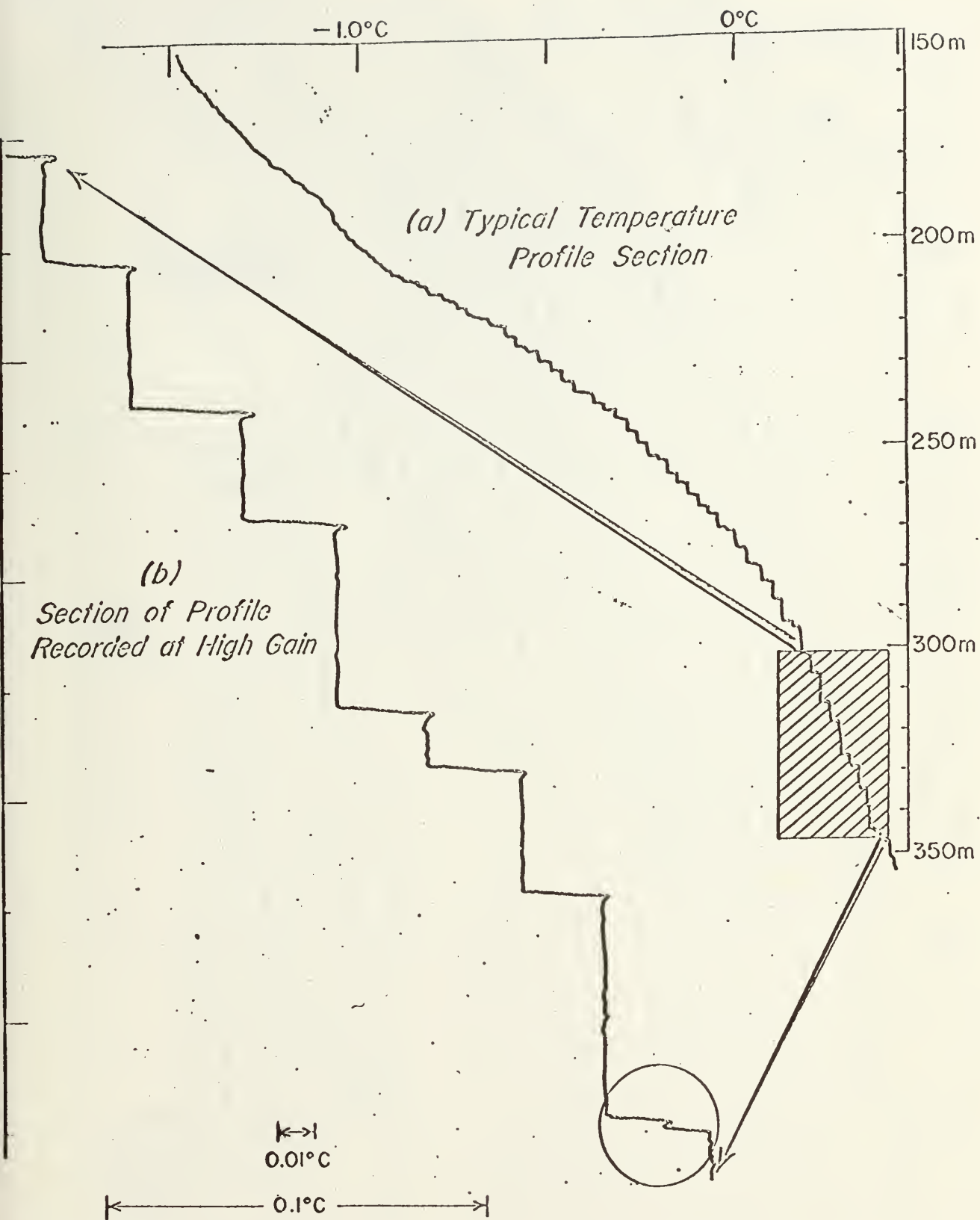
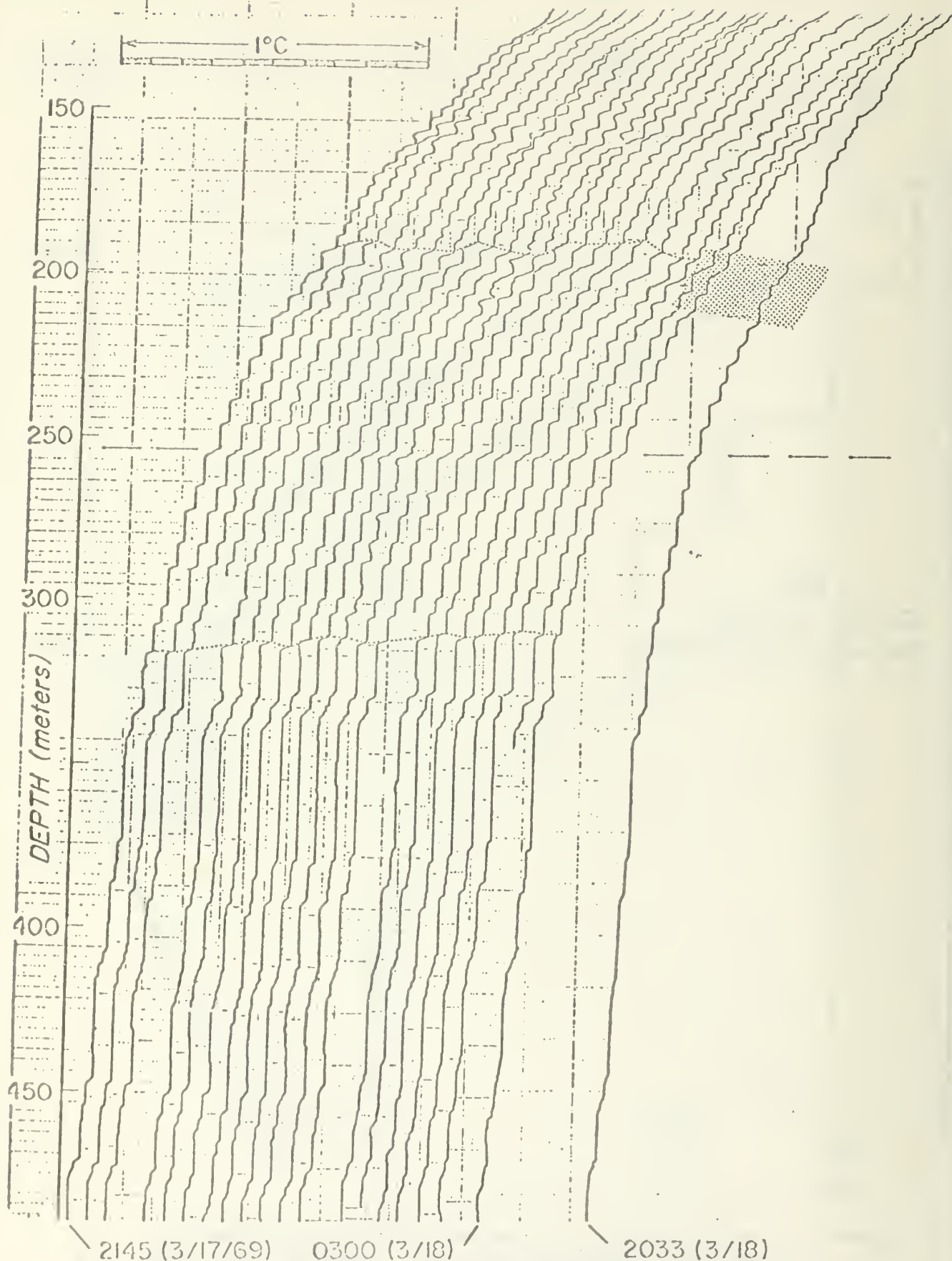


Figure 14. Vertical Profile of Temperature Under Ice Station T-3 (84-38N, 128-22W) 19 March 1969. [Neshbya, Neal and Denner, 1969].



2145 (3/17/69) 0300 (3/18) 2033 (3/18)  
Figure 15. Time Series from 2145Z 17 March to 2033Z 18 March 1969.  
[Neshbya, Neal and Denner, 1969].



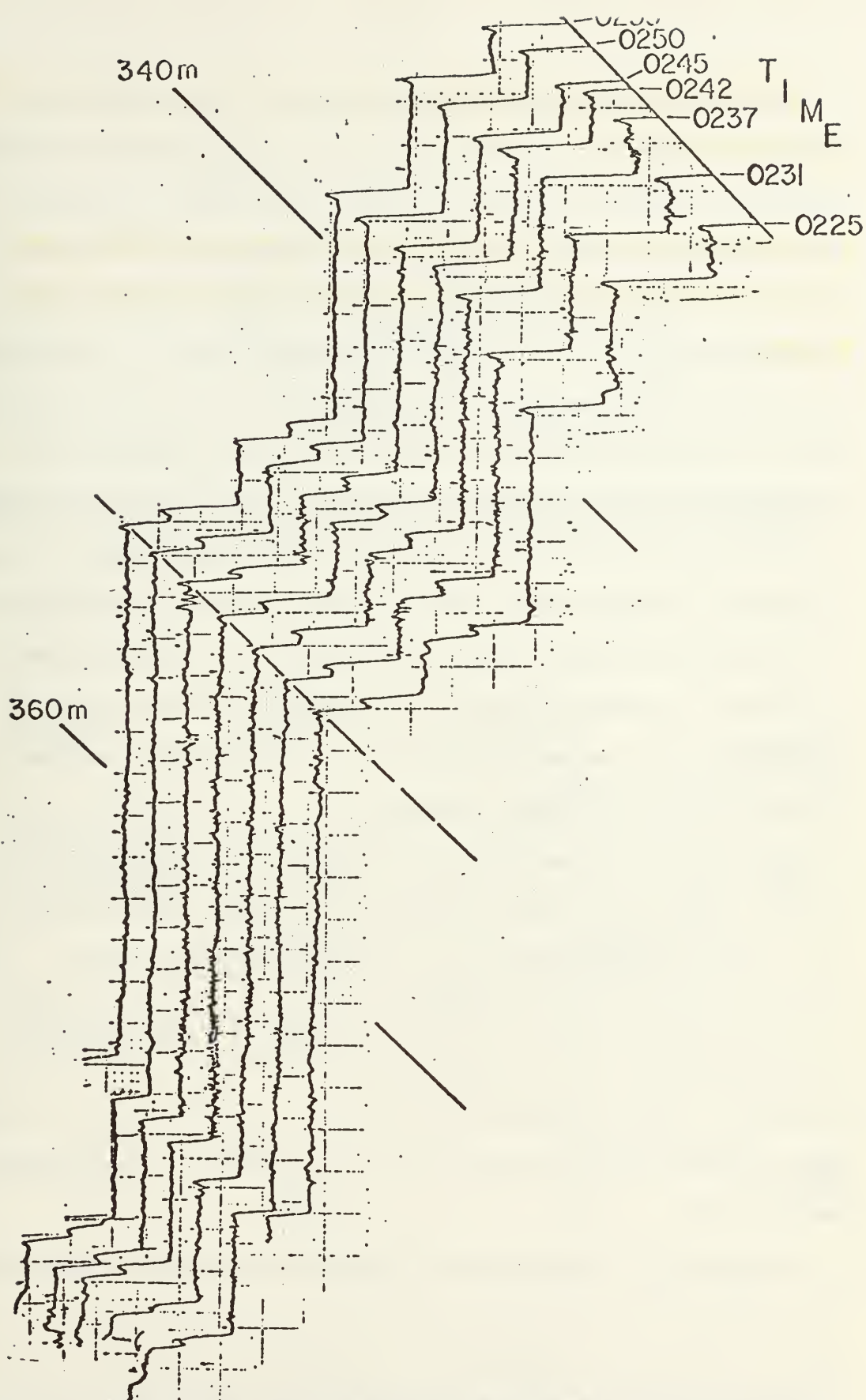


Figure 16. Time Series with High Amplification Taken from T-3 in March 1969. Temperature increases from right to left. [Neshbya, Neal and Denner, 1969].

Liebermann [1951] described the influence of the microstructure on acoustic propagation. He wrote the sharpness of temperature boundaries determines influence of the microstructure on acoustic propagation. When temperature changes occur within a distance of less than one acoustic wavelength, the temperature boundaries may reflect sound energy depending upon the size and shape of the "patch". The temperature microstructure may reflect, refract, scatter, or focus acoustic waves. The microthermal structure was considered to be made up of randomly sized "spheres", spaced randomly throughout the medium, with a scattering cross section dependent upon the autocorrelation of the temperature inhomogeneities,  $R(\rho)$ . Comparing derived scattering cross section with actual scattering in the ocean (i.e., volume reverberation), Liebermann concluded the observed reverberation was higher than one would expect from thermal inhomogeneities. He attributed volume reverberation to biological scatters.

Liebermann found that refraction effects of the inhomogeneities resulted in warping of the wave fronts, and caused the wave front to be a complex surface exhibiting both convergence and divergence. The temporal motion of the inhomogeneities resulted in sound "scintillation" at the receiver.

Mintzer [1953] found Sheehy's coefficient of variation to be dependent upon the three-halves power of the range rather than the one-half power of range.

Skudrzyk [1957] discussed the focusing and defocusing effect within the focusing range  $r_0$  given by  $r_0 = ka^2$  where  $a$  is the "patch" radius and  $k$  is the acoustic wavenumber. At ranges greater than  $r_0$ , in the interference range, phase interference results (Figures 17 and 18).

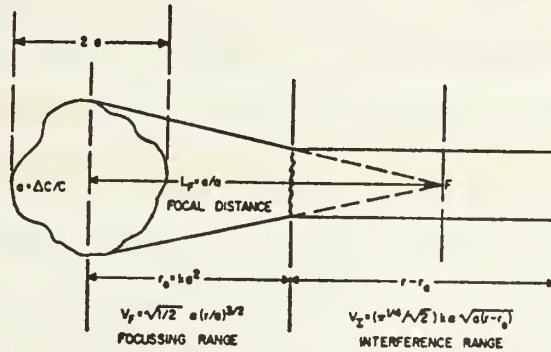


Figure 17. Illustration of the Various Types of Acoustic Scattering Due to a Thermal Patch in the Sea [Whitemarsh, Skudrzyk and Urick, 1957].

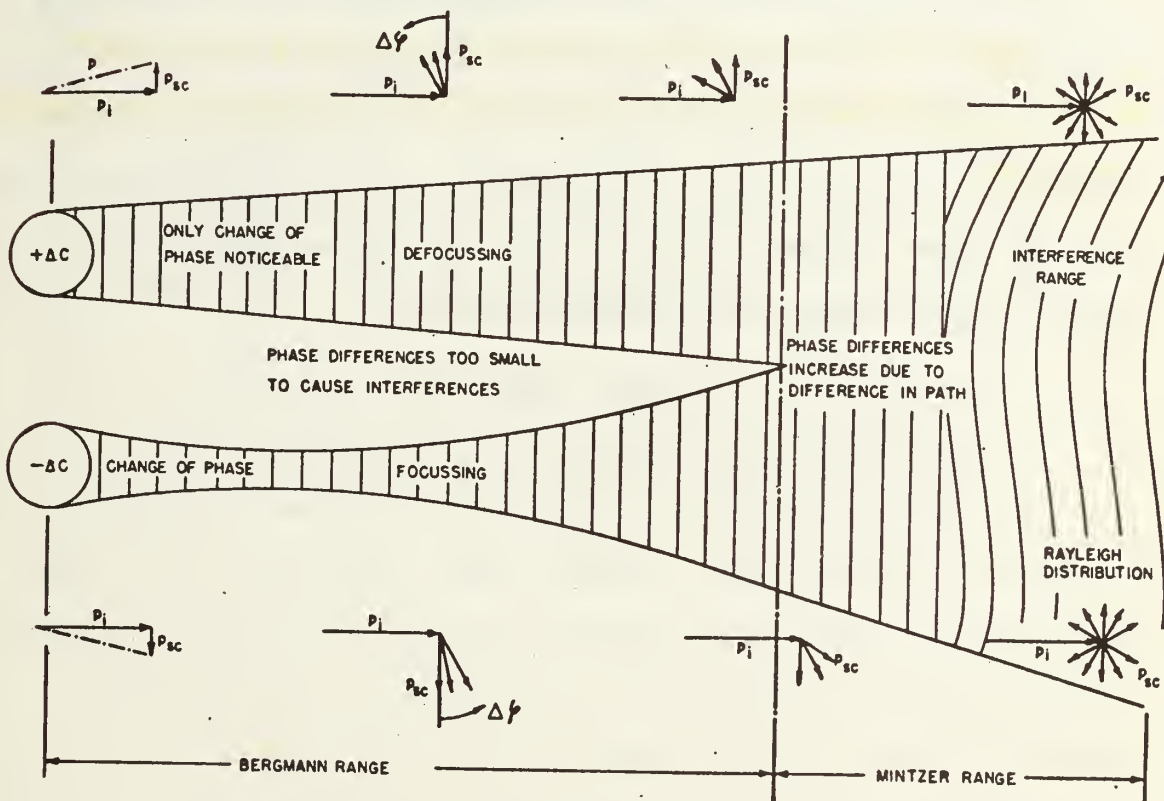


Figure 18. The Phase Angle Between the Incident and the Scattered Pressure and the Physical Nature of the Scattering as a Function of the Range [Skudrzyk, 1957].

Using this concept, Skudrzyk (Figure 19) shows the focusing range  $r_0$  as a function of frequency and patch size. (For example, a 50 kHz frequency sonar has a focusing range of 75 meters, if the patch size is assumed to be 60 centimeters.) For finding patch size, Skudrzyk used the Urick-Searfoss [1948] data to show patch size was twice the depth (Figure 20). Further, Skudrzyk started theoretical investigation with spheroidal patches, which he found to have a considerably stronger focusing effect than the spherical patches.

Whitemarsh, Skudrzyk, and Urick [1957] did additional work with the spheroidal theory. The correlation functions previously used were discussed. It was concluded that the present correlation functions were not suitable and either had to be replaced or redefined. The authors argued if the temperature microstructure was produced by turbulent motion in the sea, then the Kolmogorov Law for statistical equilibrium must hold. This, they show, was in excellent agreement with their data. Lending support to continued studies such as are presented in this thesis, their final conclusion states that the

"... greatest gap seems to lie in the microthermal statistics of the ocean. If these were known better than they are now, apparently the amplitude statistics of the fluctuations of sound transmitted through the sea could be predicted roughly, but with some assurance."<sup>1</sup>

Works by Peterson [1965], Barakus [1968] and DiNapoli [1969] have considered the normal mode approach to the interference range solution for the temperature inhomogeneities and have also investigated the effects of internal waves on sound in stratified mediums.

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<sup>1</sup>Whitemarsh, D. C., Skudrzyk, E., and Urick, R. J., "Forward Scattering of Sound in the Sea and Its Correlation with the Temperature Microstructure," J. Acous. Soc. Am., v. 29, p. 1141, October 1957.

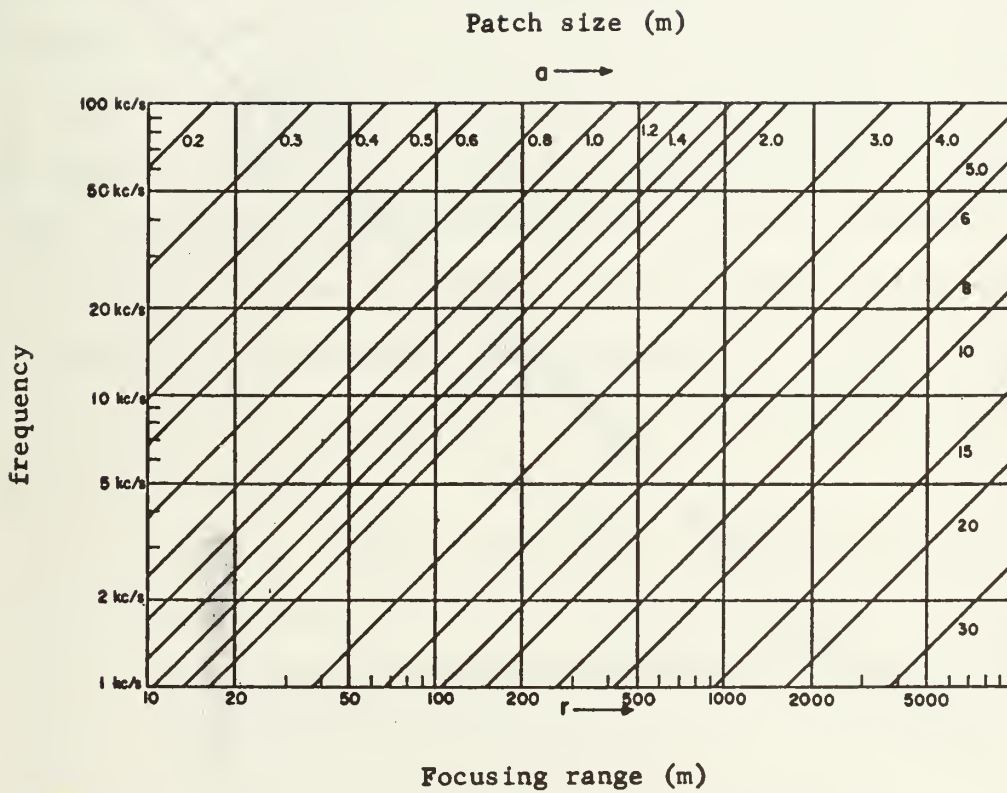


Figure 19. Focusing Range (meters) as a Function of Frequency and Patch Size (meters) [Skudrzyk, 1957].



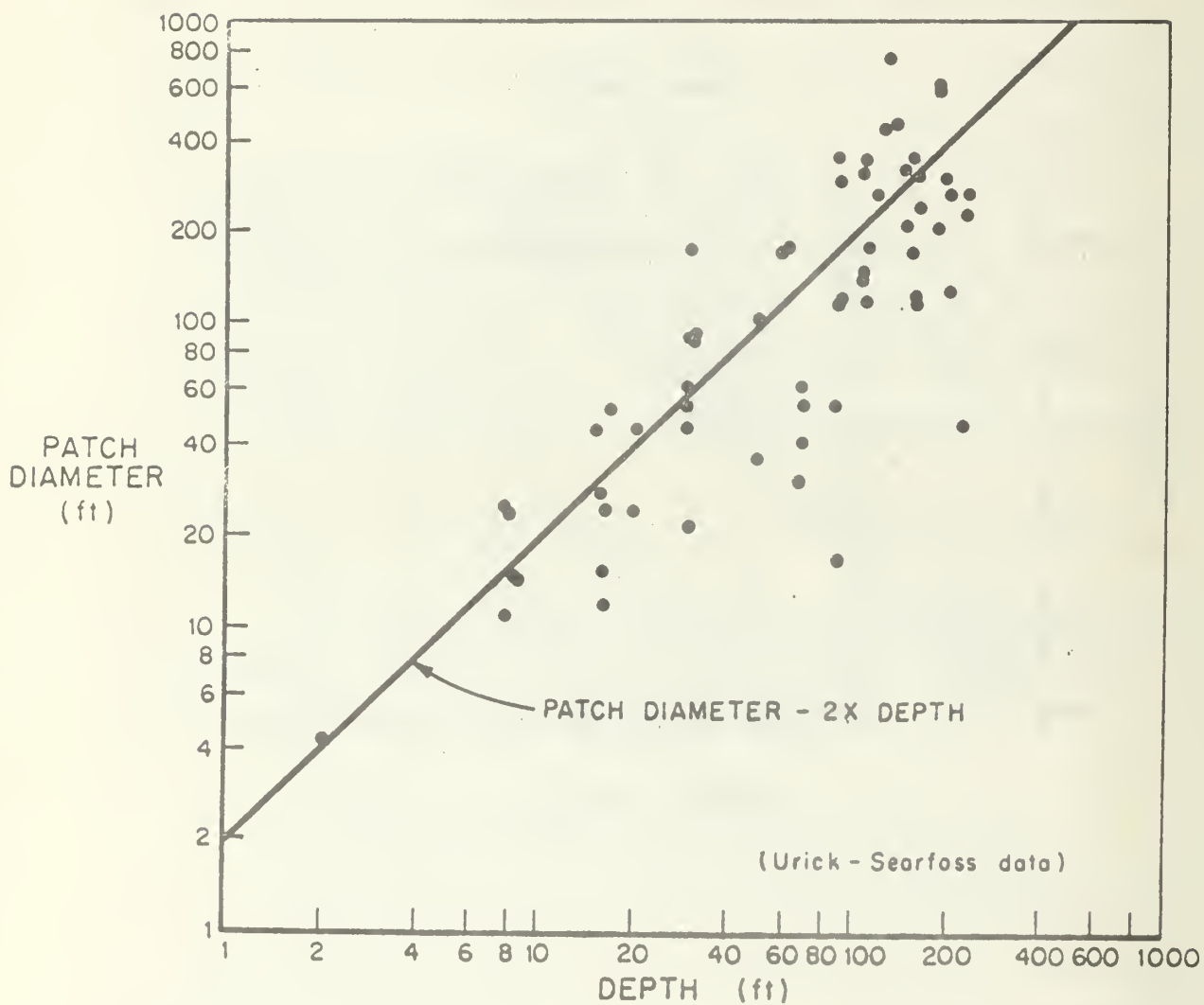


Figure 20. Patch Diameter Versus Depth [after Skudrzyk, 1957].

### C. INADEQUACIES OF THE PRESENT THEORY

Since the thermal microstructure is not related simply to the gross thermal features measured on MBTs, there is presently no easy way to predict, on a day-to-day basis, the effects of microthermal structure on the propagation of sound in the sea. The theories, so far, have developed in two classes.

The first theories [Liebermann, 1951; Mintzer, 1953, 1953a, 1954; and Skudrzyk, 1957] concerned spherical and, more recently, spheroidal shaped inhomogeneities throughout the ocean. Part A above has discussed the present knowledge of microstructure showing that the long thin sheets and layers do exist as microthermal structure. These first acoustical theories do not apply to what is now described as the microstructure of the ocean.

The theoretical treatment by Whitemarsh, Skudrzyk and Urick [1957], considering spheroidal patches and Kolomogorov's turbulence theories, could not find any real theoretical explanation of what happens in the sea when sound passes through an inhomogeneity. The investigations using normal modes have not produced any practical operational results.

Lee [1961] using ray path theory, demonstrated the effect of a typical sinusoidal internal wave on sound intensity in a three-layered model. For the medium with an internal wave, intensity variations up to 22 db were found in distances of less than one internal wavelength, as shown by Figures 21 and 22. In contrast, the same medium, without an internal wave, produced a 5 db variation, including a 2.5 db spreading loss, over the same distance.

Another study investigating the effects of sound velocity microstructure was conducted by FNWC [Wolff, Tatro and Megehee, 1967]. A

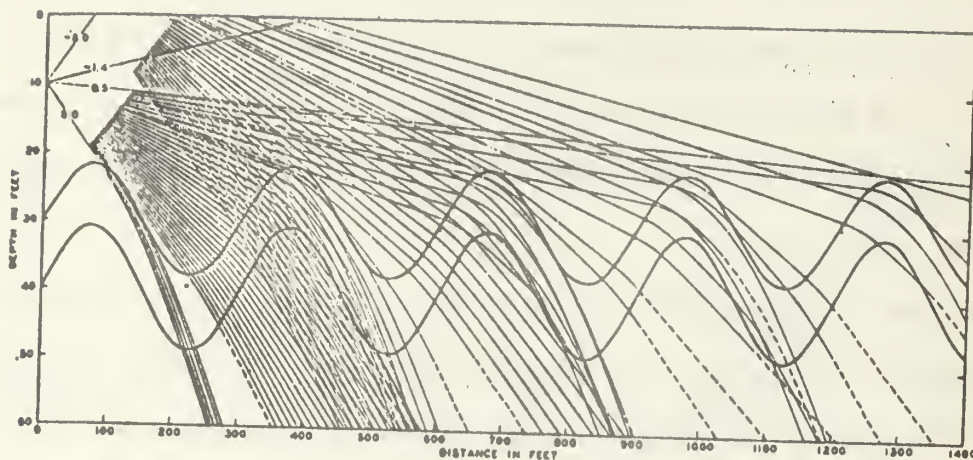


Figure 21. Diagram of Sound Rays through a Medium Which has an Internal Wave on the Thermocline [Lee, 1961].

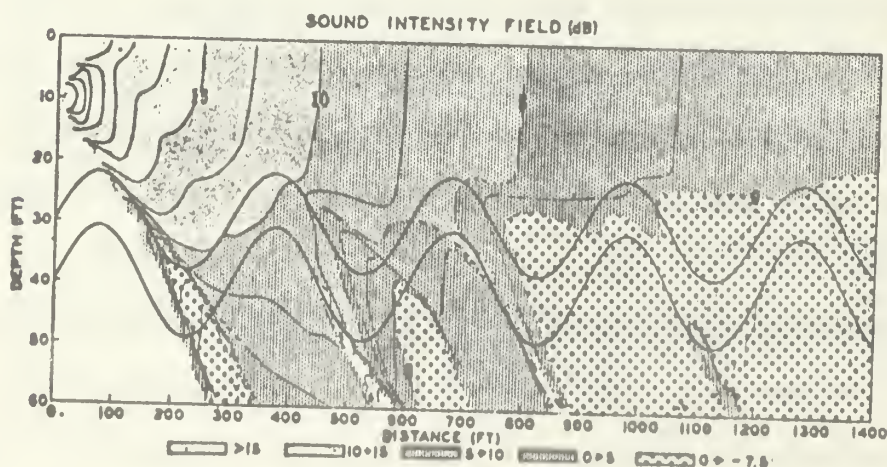


Figure 22. Sound Level in the Medium with an Internal Wave on the Thermocline. The db reference level is that corresponding to a sound level of 60 db at 1 foot from the directional source (X equals 0, Z equals 10 ft) along the horizontal. The field is contoured at intervals of 2.5 db [Lee, 1961].



sophisticated ray-tracing program [Ayers, Wolff, Carstensen and Ayers, 1966] was used for the analysis. Three complete ray trace runs were made to the first convergence zone using 120, 54, and 20 digitized sound velocity points from one SVTP trace containing sound velocity microstructure. The 120-point sound velocity profile preserved all the "wiggles" or microstructure, the 54-point profile used values at every 50 meter of depth, and the 20-point profile used the standard oceanographic depth values for sound velocity (Figure 23). The range to the first convergence zone agreed within 150 yards for all three cases. Based on the ray trace runs only, it was concluded the sound velocity microstructure was "essentially self-cancelling" and did not affect the convergence zone parameters [Wolff, Tatro, and Meghee, 1967]. Propagation loss and reverberation effects were not reported.

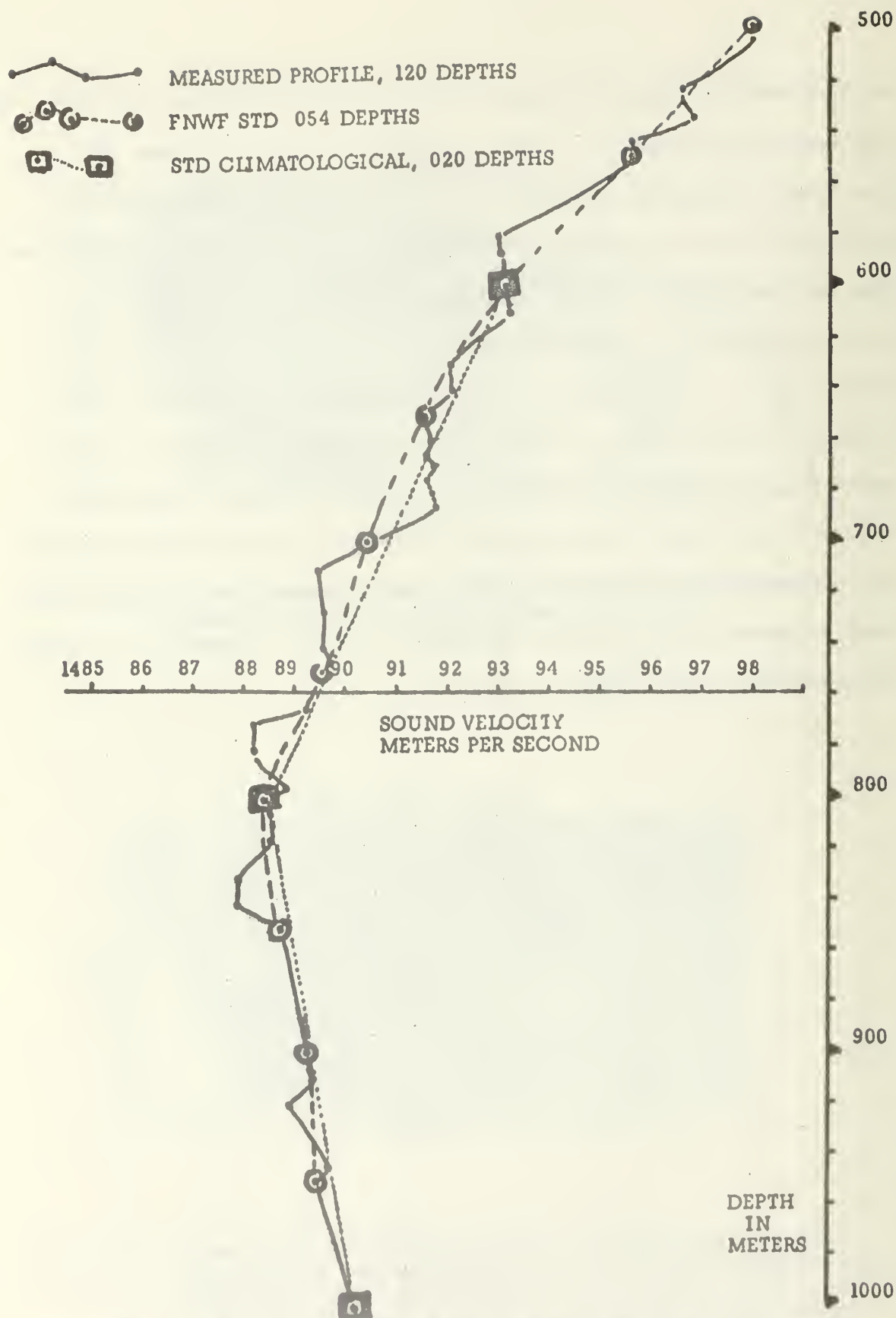


Figure 23. A Portion of the Three Different Sound Velocity Profiles Used by FNWC for Ray Tracing [after Wolff, et al.].

### III. MEASURING MICROTHERMAL STRUCTURE

#### A. THE BATHYTHERMOGRAPH

##### 1. Mechanical Bathythermograph

At the present time temperature is the most readily observed variable in the upper few hundred meters of the ocean. A major contributor to this situation is a singularly successful oceanographic instrument known as the mechanical bathythermograph or MBT. Subsequent to its introduction by Rossby and Montgomery [1934] and perfection by Spilhaus [1938], the MBT has become one of the basic instruments of almost all oceanographic agencies because of its simplicity of operation, reliability and relatively low cost. The result has been that a large number of bathythermograms have been collected.

Researchers during World War II, using the MBT, observed microthermal structure on their traces. No theory had been formulated which took into account the effects caused by microthermal structure on underwater sound transmission. It was recognized, however, that temperature microstructure must be considered in any explanation of observed underwater sound transmission [National Defense Research Committee, 1946].

##### 2. The Expendable Bathythermograph

###### a. Capabilities

Presently the U. S. Navy is using the XBT system manufactured by the Sippican Corporation of Marion, Massachusetts. This system consists of an expendable shipboard cannister and probe, shipboard launcher, and a strip chart recorder. Data so obtained are submitted to FNWC and were used in this thesis.

The original Bureau of Ships' specifications [Denner, 1966] for an XBT system are given in Table I.

TABLE I

Temperature range	28F to 96F
Temperature accuracy	$\pm 0.4$ F
Depth range	0 to 1000 ft
Depth accuracy	$\pm 2\%$ or 15 ft, whichever is greater
Ship's speed when launching	$\pm 63\%$ of a temperature step after 3 ft depth change

The expendable Sippican probe currently used has a thermistor sensor in its nose. The probe is connected electrically to the recorder by two conductor wires which pay out from both the probe and the canister. The cannister in the launcher is connected to the recorder by a cable. There are no splices in the wire. The probe's weight is a critical factor in determining its fall-rate. The Sippican system was found to be within  $\pm 3$  gms both with and without its internal copper wire. (The deviation was from 0.3% to 0.64% of the total weight of the probe.) The observed average fall-velocity of the probe was  $20.3 \pm 0.2$  ft/sec. A probe, with its internal wire, had an average terminal velocity of  $19.9 \pm 0.7$  ft/sec. Terminal velocity was reached at  $18.0 \pm 0.5$  ft [Gouzie, Sanders and Littlehale, 1966].

The present XBT strip chart recorder is a Mark 2A model using pressure sensitive paper for recording the thermal profile. The paper moves vertically on the recorder at a rate of 3.25 in/min. In one minute, the XBT, falling at 20 ft/sec, will have reached a depth of 1200 ft. Thus, 1200 ft will be recorded on 3.25 inches of chart paper, or 0.0027 of an inch of chart paper is used for every foot of fall.

The chart paper records horizontally from 28F to 96F in 7.0 inches, or about 0.103 of an inch of chart paper per 1.0F. Table II shows the resolution capabilities of the paper using different recording intervals.

TABLE II

<u>Chart Spacing (inches)</u>	<u>Resolution</u>	
	<u>Temperature (F)</u>	<u>Depth (ft)</u>
0.01	0.0971	3.690
0.005	0.0476	1.045
0.001	0.0097	.369

The response time for the thermistor is 110 milliseconds nominal and 130 milliseconds maximum [Choate, 1970 and Demeo, 1968]. A time constant-temperature change plot shows that 98.2 percent of a temperature change has been recorded in 10.4 feet of fall, 83 percent recorded in 5.2 feet of fall, 68 percent in two feet of fall and 35 percent in one foot of fall (Figure 24).

The thermistor, because of its finite size, has thermal inertia which causes it to act as a low pass filter. As a result, fine structure is lost or at best smoothed out. The original trace could be reconstructed if the filtering characteristics (of both phase and amplitude) of the thermistor were known. These could be obtained experimentally.

#### b. Data Handling

Present procedures for handling XBT data are indicated by the log sheets which accompany the XBT's in the shipping container. First, a BATHY or BAXBT message is required to be submitted to the appropriate addressee using a PRIORITY precedence message [National

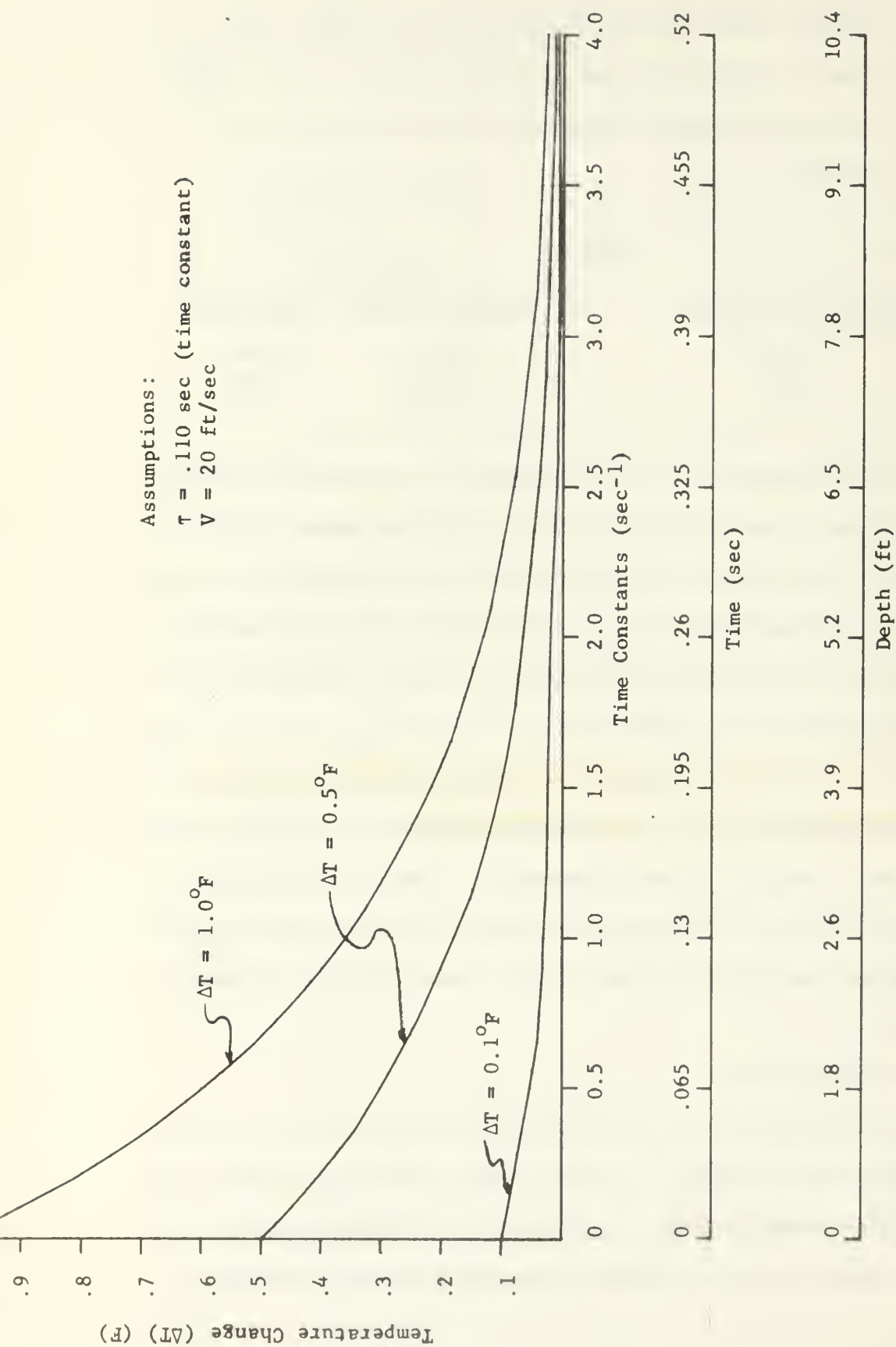


Figure 24. Temperature Change as Functions of Time, Time Constants, and Depth for Various Temperature Steps.



Oceanographic Data Center, 1968, 1968a]. Upon receipt of the BATHY or BAXBT message the receiving agency uses this as synoptic data for subjective ocean forecasts in his locality. The BATHY or BAXBT is forwarded through the Naval Environmental Data Network to FNWC in Monterey. FNWC uses the message reports to update its ocean fields for objective forecasting in various oceanographic and meteorological products.

Upon completion of a cruise the ship which took the XBT cast mails the original trace and log sheet to FNWC for digitizing. The original XBT trace is digitized for use by FNWC, and, when requested, the results of the digitizing are provided to the XBT submitting activity. Upon completion of digitizing, the original XBT traces are forwarded to the National Oceanographic Data Center (NODC) for storage in their archives. NODC also receives a copy of the digital data on tape.

Present procedures at FNWC use DIGITBT and several other specialized XBT data handling programs. New XBT digitized data are stacked on the XBT Master File (presently at a rate of about 500 traces per week).

## B. OTHER SENSORS

Sensors for measuring microthermal structure, other than those discussed elsewhere in this thesis, are numerous.

From a fixed platform, like the NEL Oceanographic Tower, thermistor strings and arrays are used. Bottom devices, such as thermistors, attached to the shore or a tower by a wire, have been employed to give continuous temperature records.

From submarines, thermopiles, thermocouples, thermistors, platinum resistance thermometers, and thin film thermometers have been employed. Almost any oceanographic electronic or mechanical thermometer could be used on a submarine.

### C. DIGITIZING PROCEDURES

At the present time, all XBT traces are submitted to Fleet Numerical Weather Central (FNWC) in Monterey, California, the only digitizing center for these strip chart analogue traces [National Oceanographic Data Center, 1968, 1968a; and Bauer, 1969].

At the Point Pinos Annex of FNWC, two Calma Model 480 flat-bed digital recorders are used to digitize XBT traces in 0.01 inch increments. These digital recorders are operated in a mode which makes the recorded intervals dependent on the tracing speed. The Calma output recorded on digital magnetic tape containing binary mode characters at a density of 556 bits per inch (BPI) with even parity and variable length records.

FNWC program DIGITBT, written by Lieutenant N. L. Perkins, USN, in FORTRAN IV for FNWC's CDC 6500 computer, is used currently for the reduction of data from XBT traces. FNWC tape input, tape output, and some other subroutines of DIGITBT are written in COMPASS language. In order to analyze microthermal structure, DIGITBT was extensively modified. The new program, referred to as MICROXBT, is included as Appendix A. The basic procedures for DIGITBT and MICROXBT programs are the same.

DIGITBT and MICROXBT programs both convert the X and Y measurements of the digitizer into depth (X) versus temperature (Y) values.

Corrections are made for nonlinearities produced by the XBT recorder in both the depth and temperature directions. All shipboard XBT recorders are assumed to produce error-free traces. The 62.0F temperature line drawn on the trace when the probe is loaded is used as a baseline for digitizing. No correction is made if this baseline temperature line is not the same as the 62.0F line printed on the trace paper. An eye-interpolated value of the XBT-drawn baseline temperature on the printed temperature grid is noted as a part of the identification record.

The rigid procedures for digitizing require that exactly one identification (ID) record and two digitized trace records for each XBT be recorded on the tape. The ID record information contains the data (day, month, year); time (hour and minute); latitude and longitude (degree, minute, hemisphere); baseline temperature (to nearest 0.1C or 0.1F depending on the grid type); printed-grid type; and maximum depth for the probe (coded as 15 for 1500 ft XBT or 25 for the 2500 ft XBT). Each trace record contains pairs of increments ( $\Delta X$ ,  $\Delta Y$ ) read from the baseline to the true surface temperature, a point "flag" and then pairs of values ( $\Delta X$ ,  $\Delta Y$ ) along the trace to a cut-off depth. Each trace is digitized twice. The complete procedure is described by Bauer [1969].

To process digitized XBT data using the DIGITBT program, the two trace records are compared point-by-point in a deviation test. If the X and Y paired values (i.e., depth and temperature) differ by more than 0.035 inches, DIGITBT rejects the whole XBT record and the XBT trace must be completely re-digitized. If the XBT record passes the deviation test,

the two traces are averaged, point-by-point. The resultant trace is used for the rest of the program.

In the following the term "inflection point" will be used to preserve consistency with the author of DIGITBT. Inflection points are those points which meet the programs' criteria as significant points which are the programs output.

Both DIGITBT and MICROXBT select the first and last observations as inflection points in the output list. The two programs differ at the inflection point choice stage. Other observations in DIGITBT are screened in groups, and, for each group, the single observation is found which is most different from a linear interpolation between the two end points of this group of observations. Each observation in a group is measured to find how out-of-line it is in temperature and in depth, and the smaller of these two is considered the out-of-line measure. All observations in the group are then compared to find the one with the largest out-of-line measure. If that value exceeds 0.0150 for an inch, that observation is selected for output in DIGITBT; otherwise, the group expands to include the next value and the inflection test is repeated until an inflection point is found.

The selection of inflection points was modified in MICROXBT to use a minimum of 0.0001 of an inch for the out-of-line measure. This produces an output containing every inflection point, which is nonlinear between two consecutive points in the digitized record. Any observations which cannot be reconstructed by linear interpolation are not required and are removed from the output listing in both DIGITBT and MICROXBT.

DIGITBT converts depth units from digitized inches to ft of depth by linear interpolation using a depth table and from ft to m by formula.

Temperature units are converted from digitized inches to F by a temperature table and from F to C by formula. These depth and temperature tables were constructed to account for the nonlinearities between the recorder and the actual trace. Values of depth are rounded to the nearest m and temperature to the nearest 0.01C in DIGITBT. MICROXBT has eliminated the ft to m and F to C conversions. Depths are rounded to the nearest 0.1 ft and temperature to the nearest 0.001F.

After the conversion from ft to the nearest m, DIGITBT removes, for a second time, any of the rounded-off values which are nonlinear between two neighboring points. If depth values appear as duplicates, one value is omitted in the output listing. In MICROXBT, there are no duplicate values because 0.1 ft in depth is well beyond the hundredth of an inch digitizing capability of the digitizer. Thus, by reading depths in tenths of a ft and temperature in thousandths of a degree F, MICROXBT loses no values from duplicate depths, and the possibility of introducing false linearities is reduced considerably. For these reasons, MICROXBT gives a much finer digitized record than DIGITBT.

The DIGITBT output tape is written in binary for the CDC 6500; the MICROXBT output tape is written for the IBM 360/67 at the Naval Postgraduate School (NPS). Appendix C contains the job control cards (JCL) required for using a CDC 6500 output tape from MICROXBT with external BCD at a density of 556 BPI as in input to a separate microthermal analysis program at NPS.



#### IV. MODELS FOR EXAMINING MICROTHERMAL STRUCTURE

All models and methods used in this thesis required the output tape from MICROXBT to be used as a direct input on the seven channel tape unit. The XBT ID record information was read first and if the recorded XBT was from a desired geographical region the data (depth and temperature) were analyzed for microthermal structure at NPS.

A "best" value for the temperature structure was found by using the depth inflection points from MICROXBT. For this "best" array, temperature was linearly interpolated to a value for every foot of depth. The mixed layer depth (MLD) was determined, using inflection points from MICROXBT, as that depth immediately above the depth where the temperature was 2.0F different from that at the surface [Naval Weather Service, 1967].

Several microstructure models were tried in order to perform an objective analysis of the oceanic microthermal structure. The use of a numerical temperature derivative model was found to give the most satisfactory presentation of the microthermal structure.

##### A. DERIVATIVE MODEL

###### 1. Mathematical Model

The most significant feature of the thermal structure is the thermal gradient defined as the derivative of the temperature with respect to depth ( $dT/dZ$ ). By plotting the gradient versus depth ( $Z$ ), the thermal structure of the water column is emphasized. Furthermore, a parameter such as the thermal gradient is related to stability, entropy generation, turbulent heat transport, and the Brunt-Väisälä frequency [Osborn, 1969].



## 2. Experimental Methods

There are two methods for experimentally determining the thermal gradient presently in use.

### a. Electronic

A resistance thermometer in an electronic bridge passing through water produces a signal which is proportional to temperature as a function of time. By differentiating this signal with respect to time (which is analogous to differentiating with respect to distance), the values of gradient versus distance the probe travels are found.

This method was successfully employed by Grant, Moillet and Vogel [1968], in the horizontal direction for temperature and turbulence measurements. A thin-film resistance thermometer, mounted on the bow of a submarine, measured temperature versus horizontal distance traveled. The time derivative was taken to produce a direct plot of  $dT/dX$ , the horizontal thermal gradients.

Osborn [1969] used a thermistor, capacitively coupled to two differentiating amplifiers, to measure the vertical temperature gradient with his free-falling gradiometers. His resulting output (Figure 13) shows a gradient versus depth record for the North Pacific off the San Diego Trough.

### b. Two-probe System

Temperature gradients may be found by using two vertically spaced thermistors. The temperature difference is a measure of the mean gradient between them. Such a gradient-meter was used by Woods [1968, 1968a] who obtained gradient at various depths (Figures 7, 8, and 9). This method is limited to the resolving power of the thermistors and is a function of thermistor spacing.

### 3. Numerical

The numerical method is based on the derivative,  $dT/dZ$ , for the gradient but uses the finite difference approximation. The derivative of the temperature at any depth  $T(Z_i)$  with respect to depth  $Z$  is defined as:

$$\frac{dT}{dZ} = \lim_{Z_i \rightarrow Z} \frac{T(Z_i) - T(Z)}{Z_i - Z} \quad (5)$$

which can be shown to equal:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dT}{dZ} &= \lim_{\Delta Z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta T}{\Delta Z} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta Z \rightarrow 0} \frac{T(Z + \Delta Z) - T(Z)}{\Delta Z}. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

For this thesis,  $\Delta Z = 1$  foot, which yields the finite difference approximation for the vertical temperature derivative:

$$\frac{dT}{dZ} \doteq \Delta T. \quad (7)$$

## B. MISCELLANEOUS METHODS

### 1. Statistical Bias and Variance

For this method, a standard or smooth curve was required. Several standard curves were investigated. The variance and bias were calculated between the standard and the "best" curves. The standard was found by computing the temperature values for a series of specified depths.

The first standard curve investigated used MLD and the FNWC significant levels (surface, 100, 200, 300, 400, 600, 800, and 1200 ft). The temperature values were found using the "best" temperature values at those depths. Next, an array of temperature values was found at foot increments by linear interpolation between the temperature values at the significant levels or the MLD. This was designated the FNWC significant

level curve. Calculations of bias and variance did not reveal any correlation with the microthermal structure easily visible on the XBT trace.

The second standard curve investigated used the temperatures at the standard oceanographic station depths (surface, 10, 20, 30, 50, 70, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 400, 500, and 800 m). Since these depths are metric, a linear interpolation was done between the two neighboring values on the "best" curve. Values of temperature for every foot were found by linear interpolations between the standard depth temperature values. Again, no significant correlation was noted.

The third standard curve used these standard depth temperature values but used these standard depth values as an input to the LGINTP subroutine [Denner, 1969]. This subroutine uses the four standard depth points neighboring the depth in question to make an "average" curve from an upward and downward parabolic interpolation and a linear interpolation. This scheme produces a smoothing of points on the curve. This technique is usually used for interpolating standard depth oceanographic data [Rattray, 1965]. These values, after computing the bias and variance, again gave no correlation with the microthermal structure.

The LGINTP subroutine was not used with the FNWC significant level values for smoothing since the FNWC fields assume linear interpolation.

Other standards considered, but not investigated, included a Gaussian standard, using the technique for approximating the temperature structure proposed by Grosfils [1968] and an exponential standard.

## 2. Gradient Distribution Method

For investigating the temperature structure, the "best" temperature data were separated into the FNWC significant levels. For each

significant level, the temperature change from one depth to the next were calculated and then sorted in numerical ascending order with the IBM subroutine SHSORT. With these values of temperature change per foot or gradient (F/ft), the temperature structure was now characterized by the individual thermal gradient values and a total temperature change  $\Delta T$ . Because of the range of temperature values in the thermocline, this region of the XBT trace was chosen for developing this method.

The capabilities of the XBT indicate a gradient interval of 0.02 F/ft is easily obtained with a high degree of confidence [Arthur D. Little, 1966]. Using 0.02 F/ft for the class interval, the frequency distribution of gradients was plotted for various XBT traces by significant levels. As expected, the greatest range in gradient values usually occurred in the significant level just below the mixed layer where the range of temperature values  $\Delta T$  was the greatest.

This method appears to give a good indication of the variability of the thermal structure in the depth intervals investigated. Several examples of the different types of gradient distributions, using histograms and a cumulative frequency diagram, are shown in Figures 25 through 31. The actual analyzed XBT is also shown on the left of each figure. Looking at data off San Diego, the first three gradient distribution diagrams (Figures 25, 26 and 27) show fairly similar cumulative frequency distributions. The next two (Figures 28 and 29) show nearly identical distributions for water inside the Gulf Stream. The next two gradient distributions (Figures 30 and 31) show water in the Gulf Stream's frontal region. These last two distributions are not identical for many reasons, but mainly because the positive gradient region in the second example is below the 100 to 200 foot interval shown in the gradient



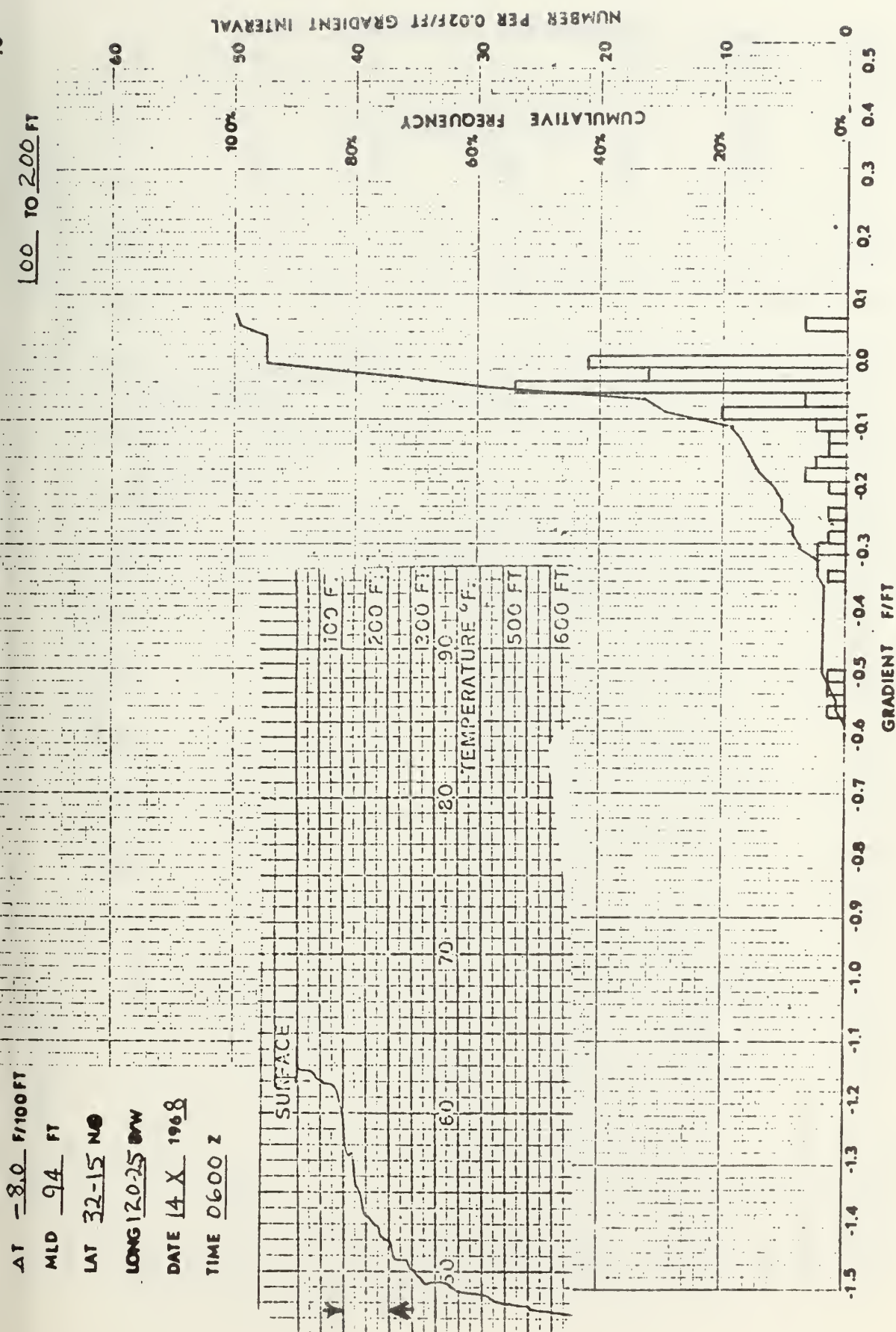


Figure 25. Gradient Distribution for the 100 to 200 Foot Interval for a Location 100 nm West of San Diego.

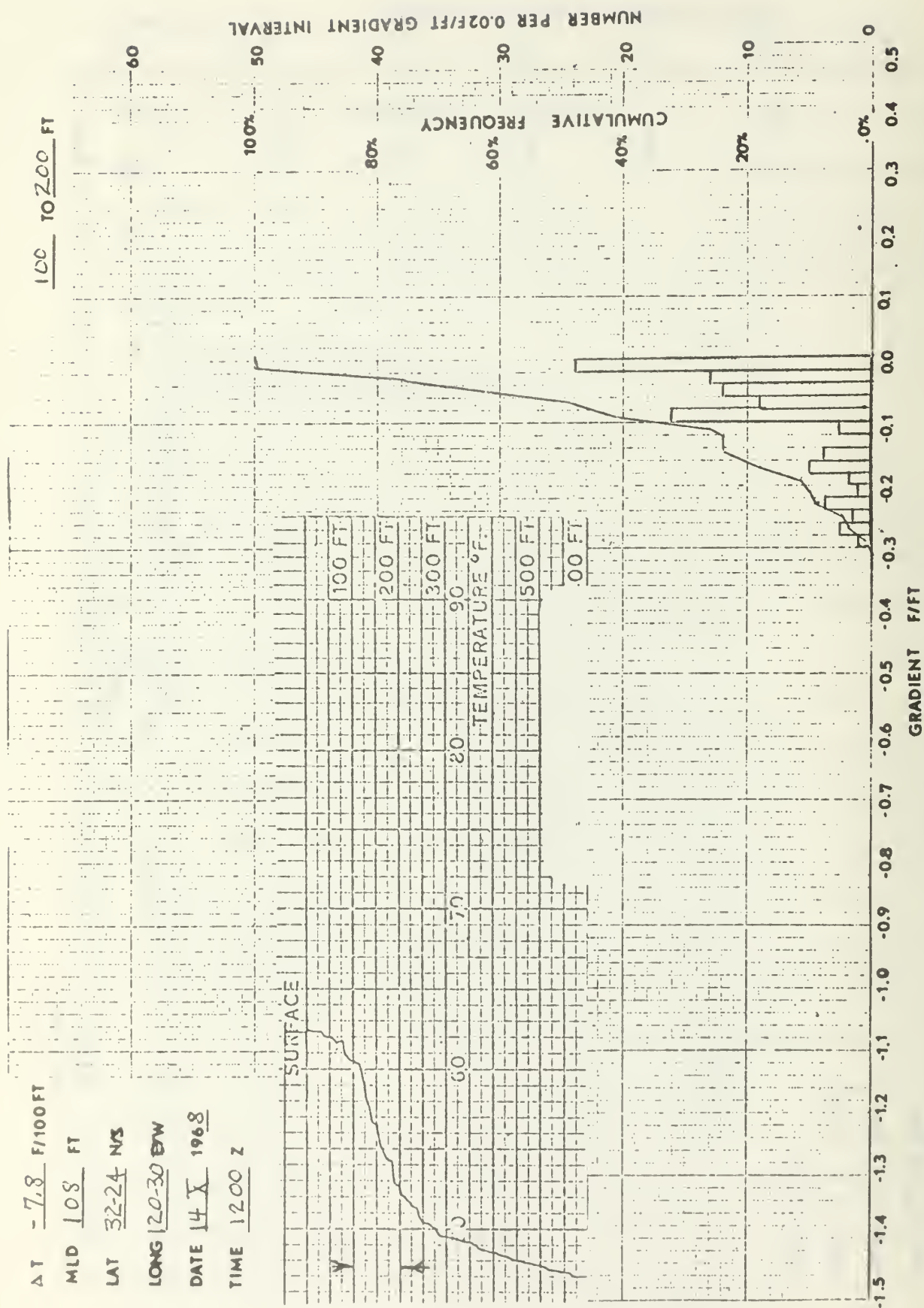


Figure 26. Gradient Distribution for the 100 to 200 Foot Interval for a Location 100 nm west of San Diego.



$\Delta T$  -8.4 F/100 FT

MLD 103 FT

LAT 32-43 NS

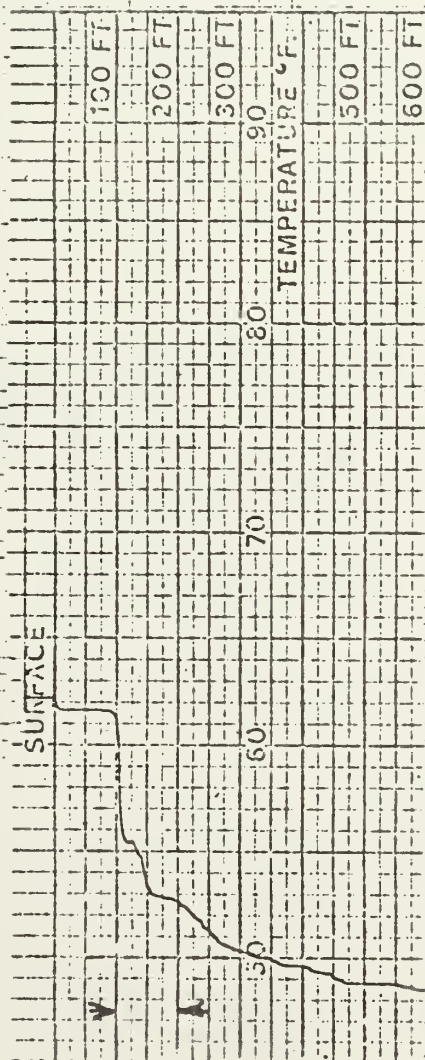
LONG 120-45 BW

DATE 14 X 1968

TIME 1800 Z

100 TO 200 FT

NUMBER PER 0.02 FT GRADIENT INTERVAL



CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY

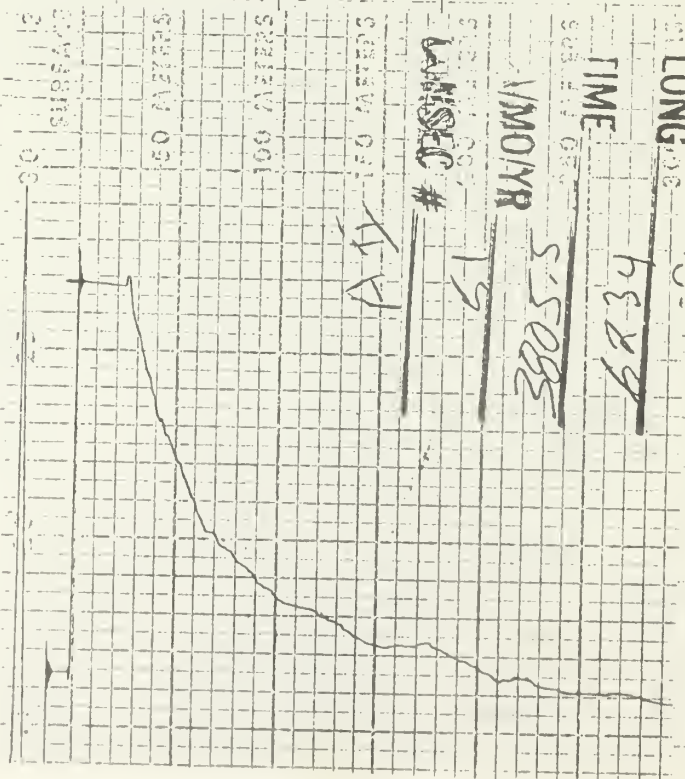
GRADIENT F/FT

Figure 27. Gradient Distribution for the 100 to 200 Foot Interval for a Location 100 nm west of San Diego.

$\Delta T$  -8.7 F/100 FT  
 MLD 96 FT  
 LAT 38 06 N  
 LONG 62 34 W  
 DATE 12 VIII 1968  
 TIME 1800 Z

100 TO 200 FT

CUMULATIVE  
 FREQUENCY  
 NUMBER PER 0.02 F/FT GRADIENT INTERVAL



GRADIENT F/FT

Figure 28. Gradient Distribution for the 100 to 200 Foot Interval for Water Inside the Gulf Stream.

MLD 90 FT  
 LAT 37-58 N  
 LONG 62-31 W  
 DATE 12 VIII 1969  
 TIME 1730 Z

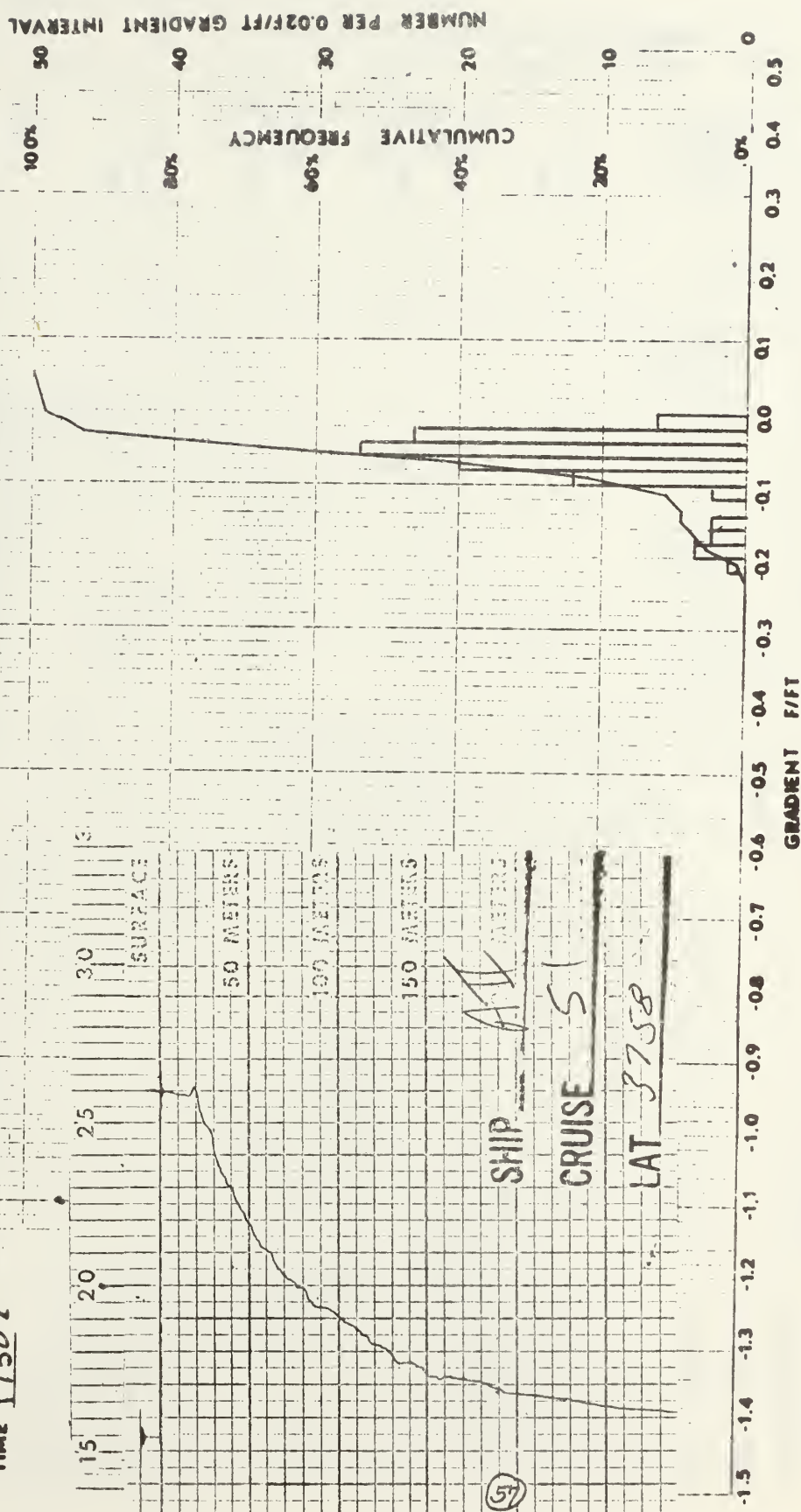


Figure 29. Gradient Distribution for the 100 to 200 Foot Interval for Water Inside the Gulf Stream.



AT -21.1 F/100FT  
 MLD 136 FT  
 LAT 3821 N  
 LONG 6244 W  
 DATE 12 VIII 1969  
 TIME 1932 Z

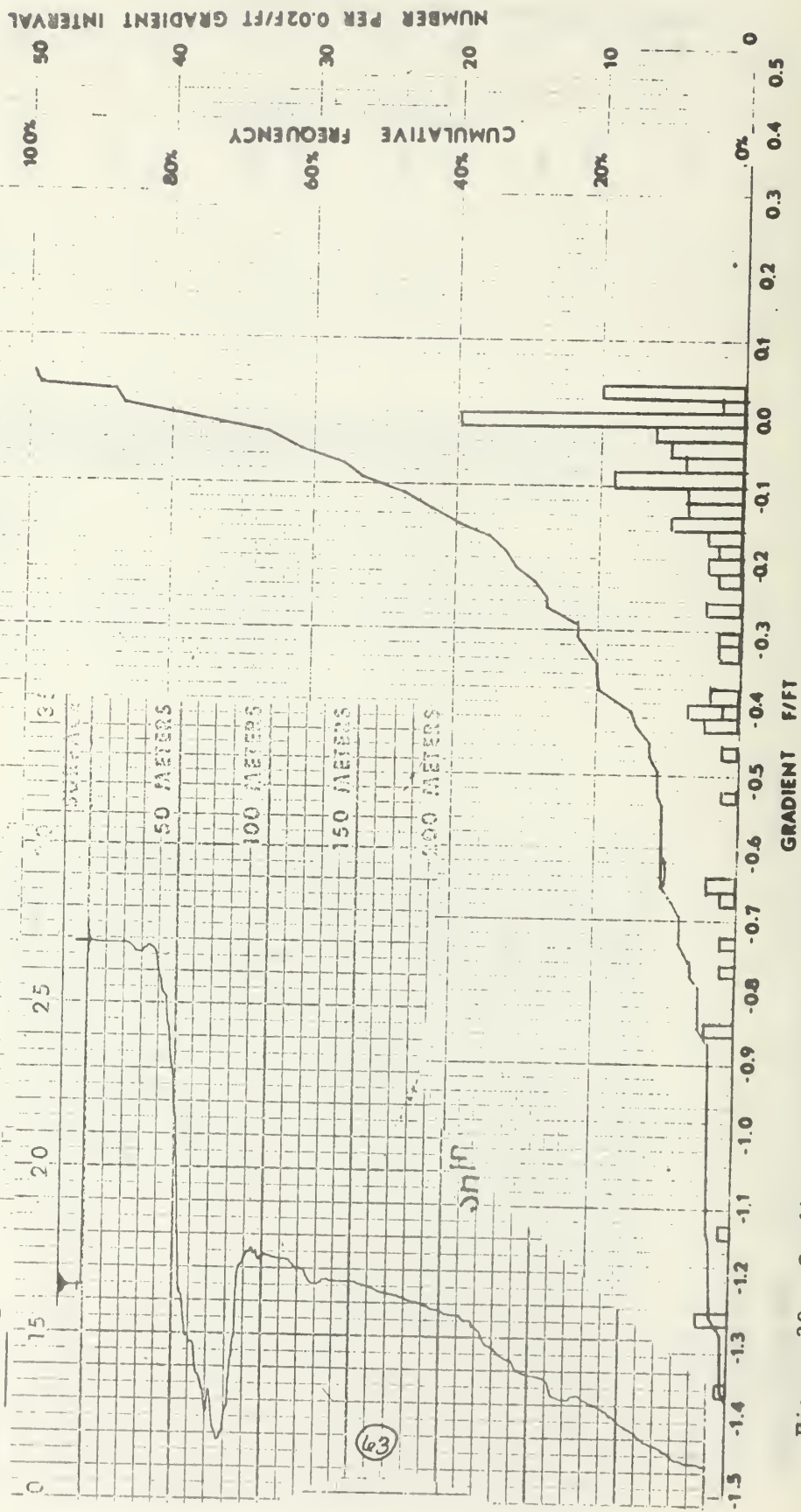


Figure 30. Gradient Distribution for the 100 to 200 Foot Interval for Water in the Gulf Stream's North Wall.

LAT 38 41 N  
 LONG 62 42 W  
 DATE 13 VIII 1969  
 TIME 0500 Z

Plus 4 at + .76  
 1 at + 1.07  
 1 at + 1.14  
 1 at + 1.20

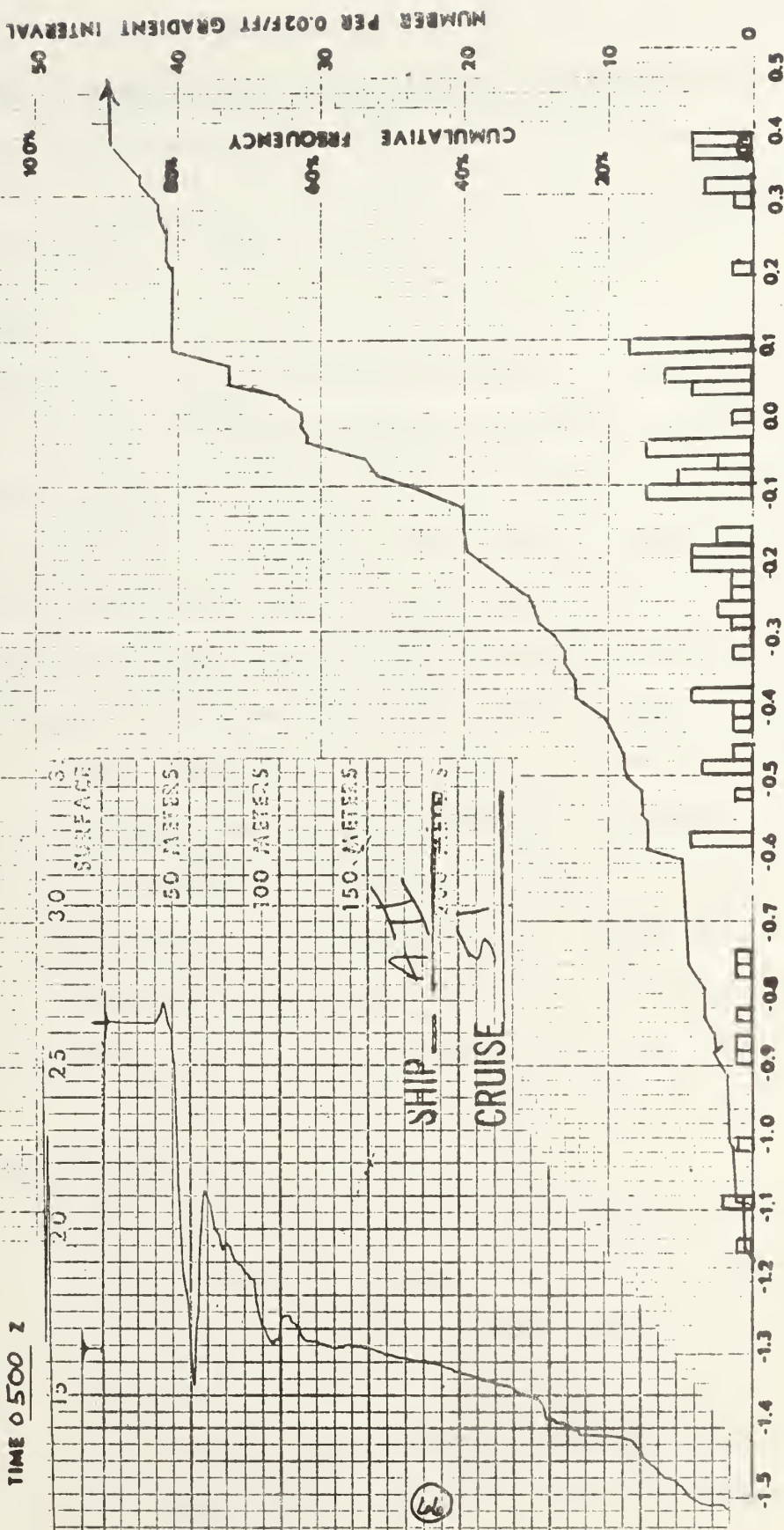


Figure 31. Gradient Distribution for the 100 to 200 Foot Interval for Water in the Gulf Stream's North Wall.

distribution plot. These results indicate that the small scale structure may be water mass related. However, this could not be fully examined in the time allotted for this thesis but is recommended for further investigation.



## V. APPLICATION OF NUMERICAL DERIVATIVE MODEL

This chapter describes the application of the numerical derivative model or method (NDM) to several cases of real and assumed data.

### A. BASIC CASES

Graphs are used to show the features of the NDM. For each station, temperature versus depth (T-Z) and temperature gradient versus depth (G-Z) plots were drawn by a CalComp plotter using the computer program with the DRAW subroutine in Appendix B. The scales are constant for all plots. The grid squares were drawn for 100-ft depth increments from the surface to a depth of 900 ft. On the T-Z plots (reproduced digitized XBT data), temperature was scaled at 10F per grid line. On the G-Z plots, the gradient was scaled to 0.1F/ft per grid interval, with the axis offset so that two-thirds of the plot was allocated to negative gradients. This scaling was chosen so that each hundredth of an inch, the resolving power of the CalComp plotter, represented one foot of depth and 0.01F of temperature or 0.001F/ft of temperature gradient. The plots included here have been reduced in size, but the relative proportions remain the same.

#### 1. Linear Gradients

For a temperature distribution with linear thermal gradients, the G-Z plot is characterized by steps indicating a constant gradient during a temperature change. For this thesis the strength of a gradient is defined as the absolute value of the gradient (in F/ft units) and is described as strong when greater than 0.3F/ft or weak when less than 0.05F/ft. The term signed strength is defined as the true gradient

value and will thus distinguish absolute and true gradient values. The magnitude of a gradient is defined as the vertical extent of the gradient measured in feet. The product of magnitude and signed strength gives the total temperature change for the extent of the gradient.

a. Layer Structure

Figure 32 shows a two-layer temperature structure model with a T-Z plot on the left and a G-Z plot on the right. The strength of the upper layer is 0.05F/ft with a magnitude of 200 ft. The lower layer is weaker (0.02F/ft compared to 0.05F/ft) than the upper step but the magnitude is greater (600 ft to 200 ft).

For the multi-layered model (Figure 33) several linear gradient steps are shown. In the gradient region between 70 and 90 ft, the gradient is strong and goes off scale (Figure 33b).

b. Step Structure

A step structure is characterized by thin strong gradient regions. The model (Figure 34) shows clearly that the four steps between 60 and 100 ft are stronger than any other steps shown. These four steps also have the smallest magnitude (five ft) in the figure. The steps at 200, 300, and 400 ft all have the same strength but increase in magnitude with depth.

The features of the T-Z trace (Figure 34a) are easily described by the G-Z model. The product of signed strength and magnitude gives the total temperature change from the surface temperature to a given depth for a step-structure temperature profile. The temperature at any depth could then be found if the sea surface temperature was known. Thus, with magnitude, signed strength and sea surface temperature, any layered or stepped thermal profile could be reconstructed.

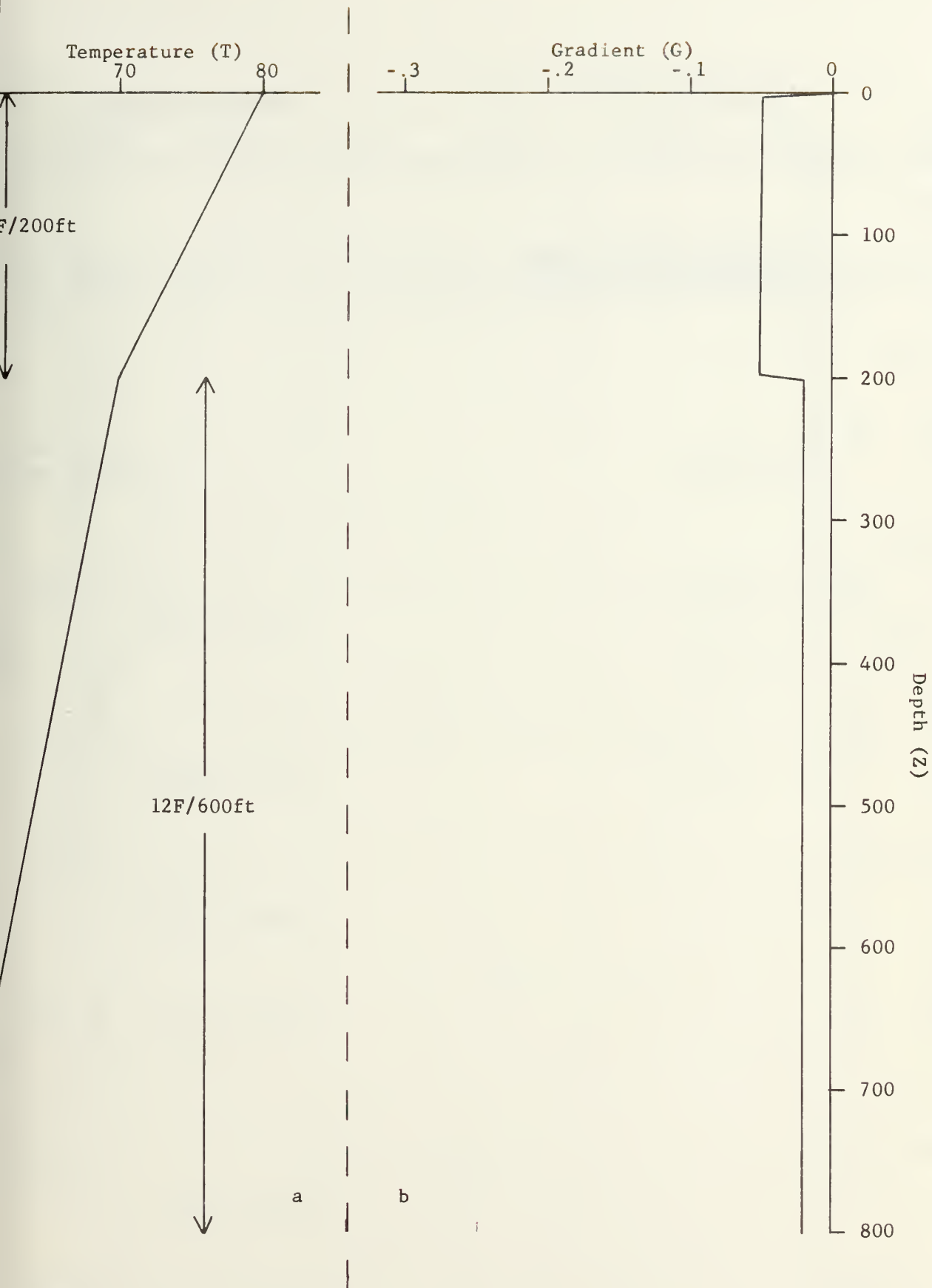


Figure 32. Two-Layer Model.

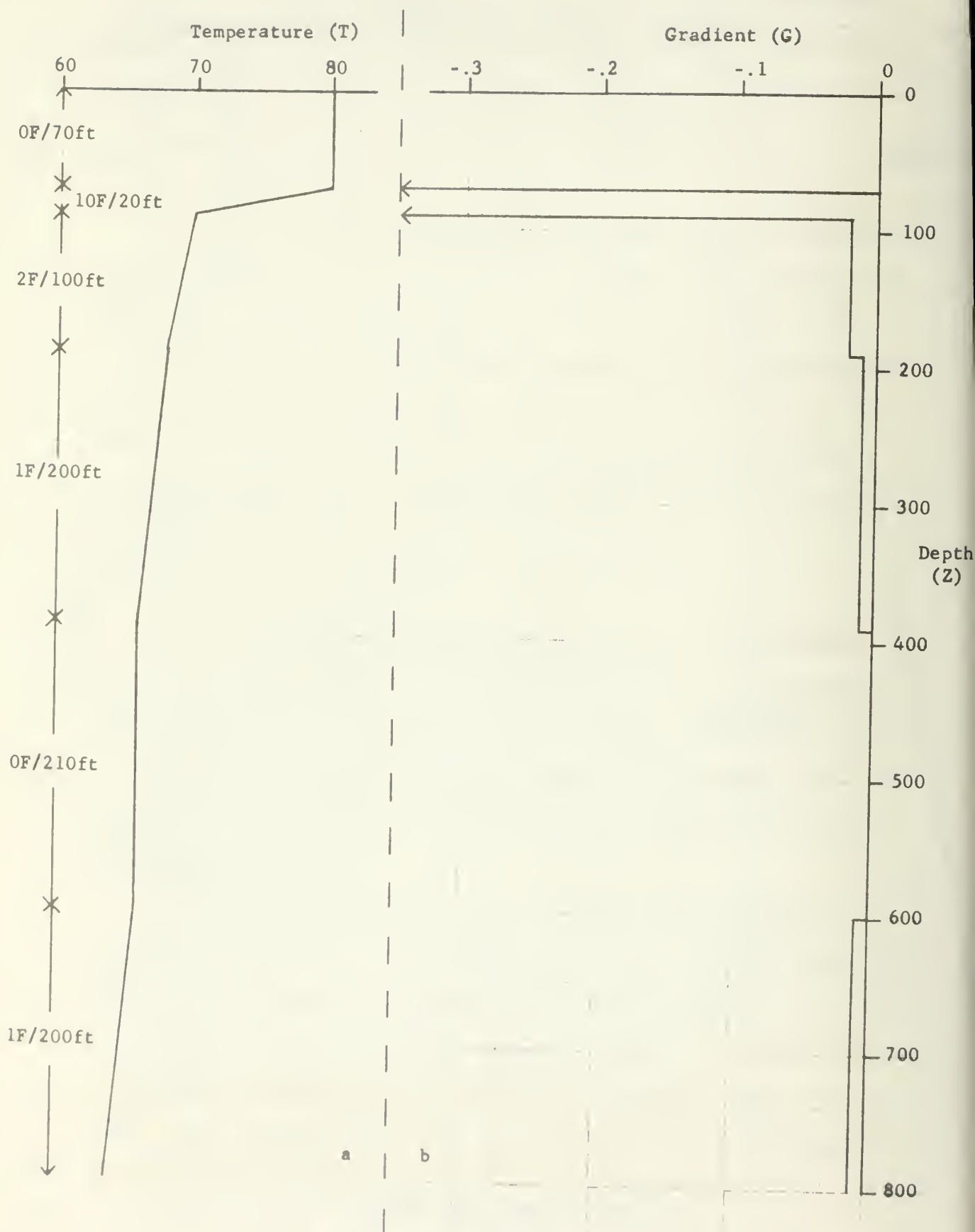


Figure 33. Multilayer Model.

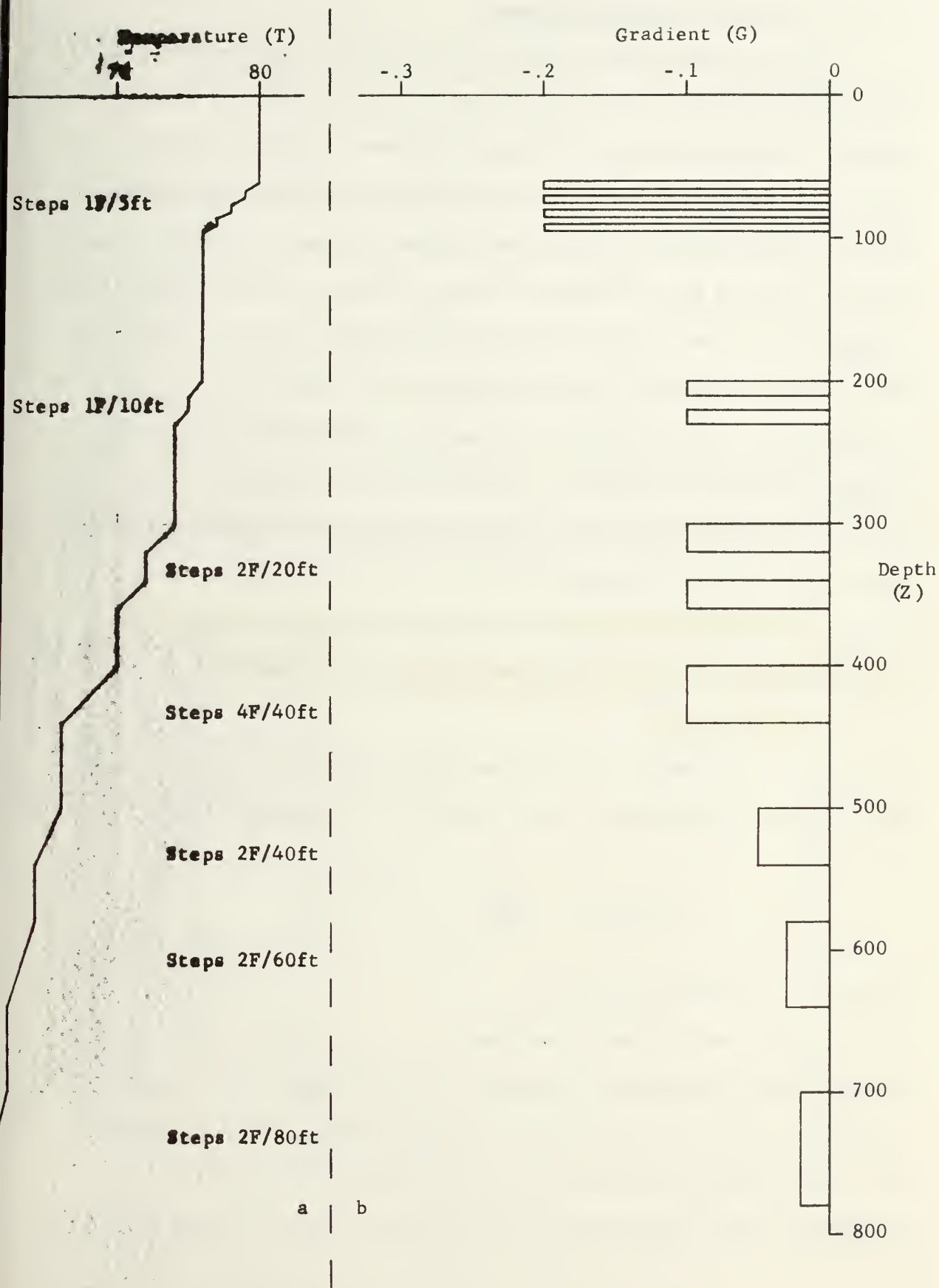


Figure 34. Step Structure Model.



## 2. Continuous Curving Gradients

Since finite values are used for both depth and temperature, a truly continuous curve cannot be drawn. The spacing by the CalComp plotter of every hundredth of an inch can cause variations of this size. Computed values of depth, temperature and temperature gradient were provided as inputs to a CalComp plotter at every hundredth of an inch to create a quasi-continuous curve, at least to a resolution of the plotter. It is this quasi-continuous field which accounts for the 0.01 inch steps encountered in curves drawn by the plotter for any truly continuous curve. This effect is also present whenever the plotter is drawing any line not directly in the X or Y axis directions. Accordingly, any steps shown of this size could be considered as possible adjustments made by the plotter or data to adjust to the hundredth of an inch grid.

Two examples of continuous gradients are given to show the resulting distributions of gradient with respect to depth.

### a. Gaussian

An example of a Gaussian profile (Figure 35) shows a normal distribution of temperature with depth for the function, like

$$T(Z) = 80 - \frac{20}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^Z e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2} dx \quad (8)$$

where:  $x$  = a dummy variable

80 = sea surface temperature.

The G-Z curve highlights the changes in the T-Z curve. The increase in gradient strength is very clear, reaching a maximum 200 feet, whereas the inflection point of the T-Z plot is difficult to find by visual inspection. The summation of signed strength values at every foot of

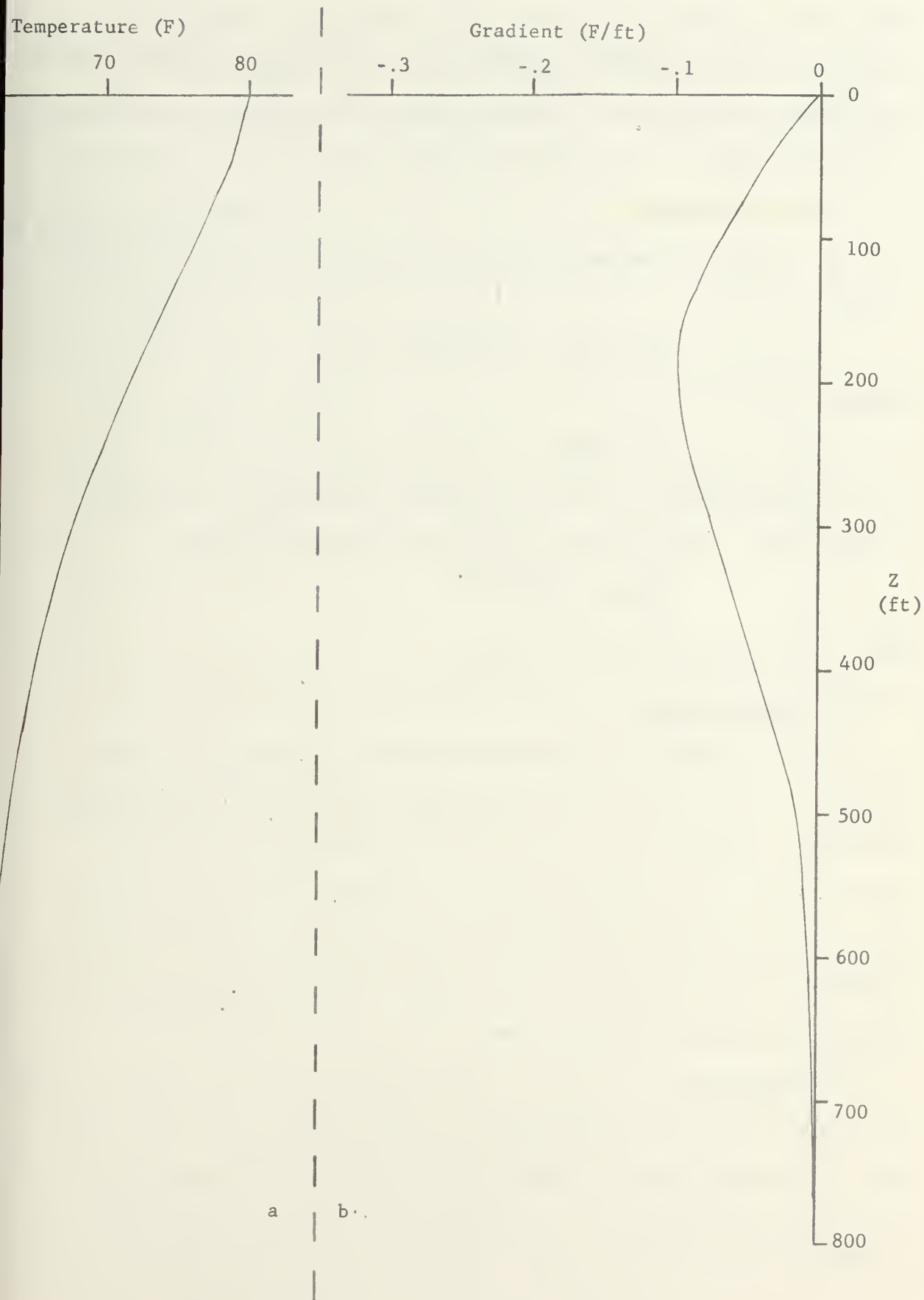


Figure 35. Gaussian Model.

depth from the surface down gives a total temperature change which is analogous to the product of magnitude and signed strength with all magnitudes set equal to one. With this summation and a given sea surface temperature (SST), a continuous temperature profile can be reconstructed.

#### b. Exponential

Using an exponential expression for the temperature distribution

$$T(Z) = 60 - 20e^{-\pi Z/1000} \quad (9)$$

where:

$$60 = \text{SST},$$

the T-Z (Figure 36a) and G-Z curves (Figure 36b) appear as compliments of each other. The derivative of T(Z) with respect to Z gives:

$$\frac{dT(Z)}{dZ} = \frac{\pi e}{50}^{-\pi Z/1000} \quad (10)$$

which is the equation of the G-Z plot.

### 3. Superpositions

In the example of layers superimposed on an exponential model (Figure 37), the conditions for the exponential (9) hold for the depth intervals: surface to 40 ft, 220 to 340 ft and 460 to 800 ft, with various layers at the remaining depths. Isothermal layers exist below the weak surface exponential gradient layer and also in the 140 to 180 ft depth layer. From the T-Z plot, the layers at 340 and 400 ft are not as evident as they are in the G-Z plot.

### 4. Inversions

A model with two inversions and several linear steps (Figure 38) shows the positive gradient regions clearly. The second deeper inversion is clearly a weak gradient, but it is still discernible in Figure 38b.

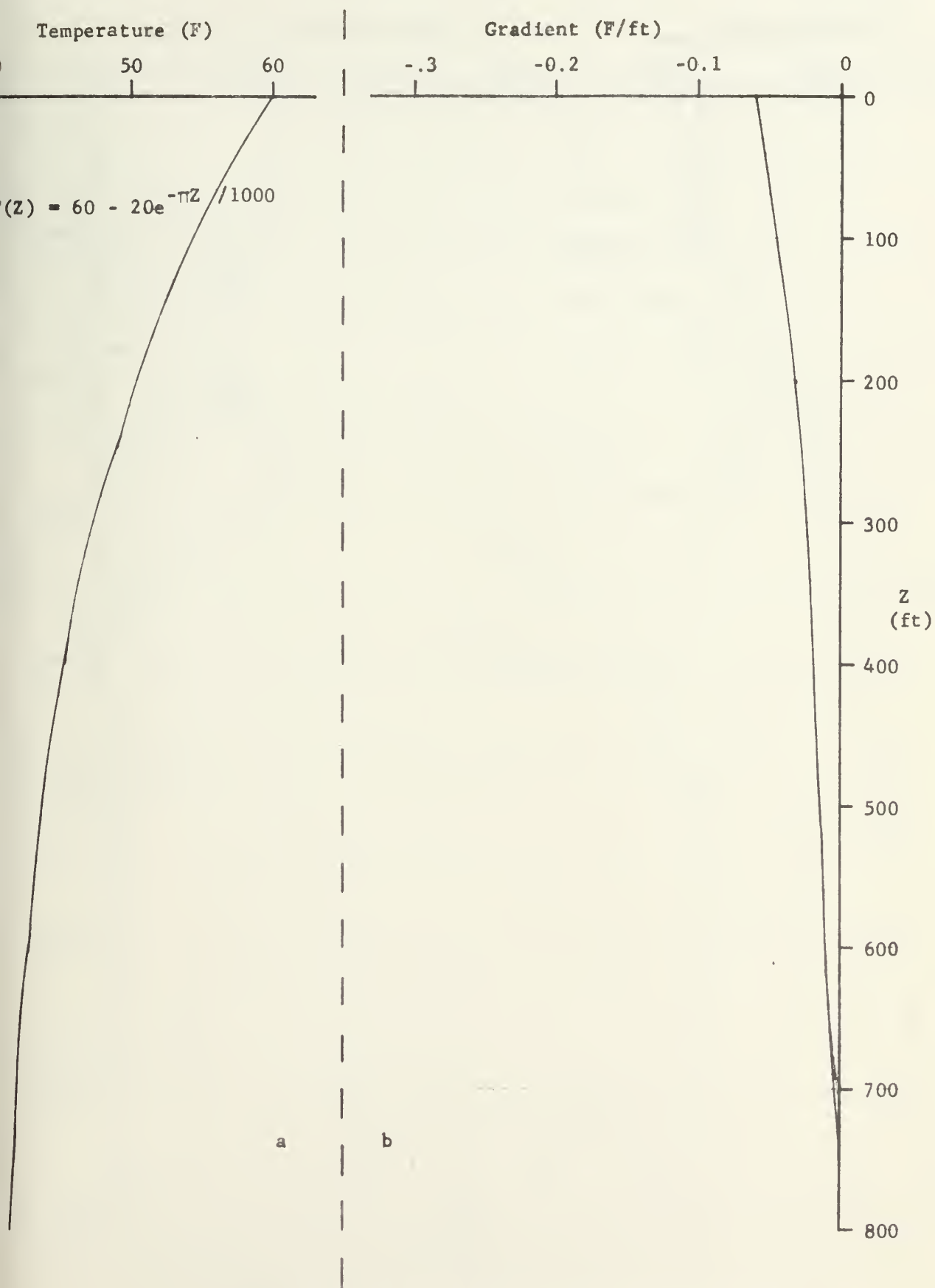


Figure 36. Exponential Model.

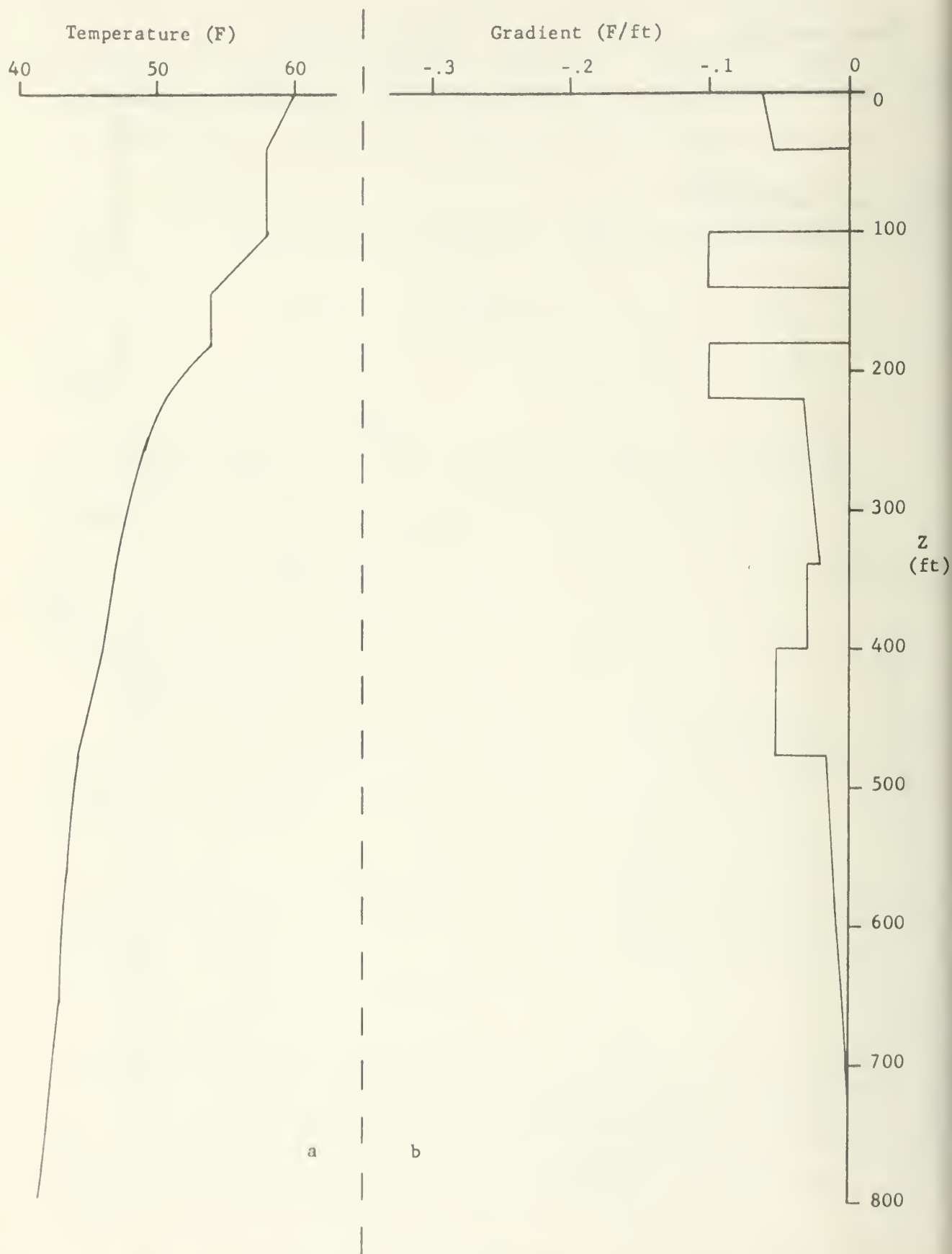


Figure 37. Exponential Model with Layers Superimposed.



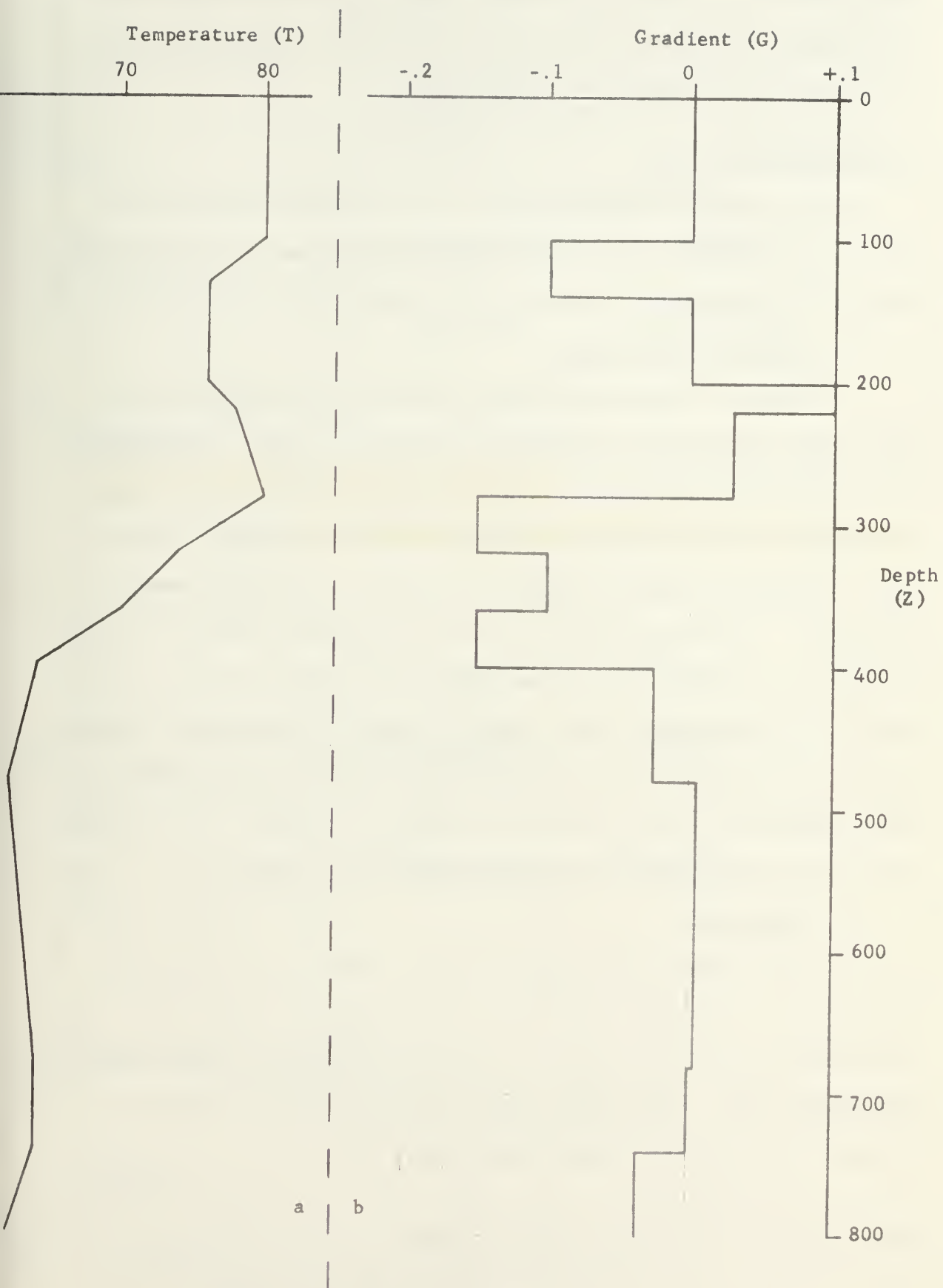


Figure 38. Multi-Step Model With Two Inversions

With inversions, summing the signed strength values for each foot gives the temperature change from the surface and adding this value to SST yields the actual temperature at any depth.

## B. OBSERVATIONAL CASES

Several different oceanic regions were selected to establish features of this model. The oceanic regions explored were along the Atlantic Coast, in the Andaman Sea, Eastern North Pacific, and the Gulf Stream.

### 1. Atlantic Coastal Region

Stations in Massachusetts Bay occupied during December 1969 were used. The stations were within a radius of 13 miles. Water depths were between 280 and 420 feet. Lack of strong gradients in all seven traces shows that the water was probably well mixed (Figures 39 through 42). A positively signed strength in the upper 300 feet was common in the traces. Inversions (Figure 40) are quite clear in both the T-Z and G-Z plots. A portion of the actual XBT trace is shown for three of the stations. In these three cases, there is excellent visible correlation between the actual XBT trace and the reconstituted T-Z plots which shows that MICROXBT can resolve very small temperature features. In no case was there an isothermal layer greater than 140 feet thick.

### 2. Andaman Sea

In the Andaman Sea, near the Straits of Maalacca, a series of 15 XBT stations from the 18 to 20 July 1969 period were used. The stations were within a radius of 12 miles. Water depths varied between 290 and 380 feet. This oceanic region could be considered somewhat similar to the Atlantic Coastal region above.

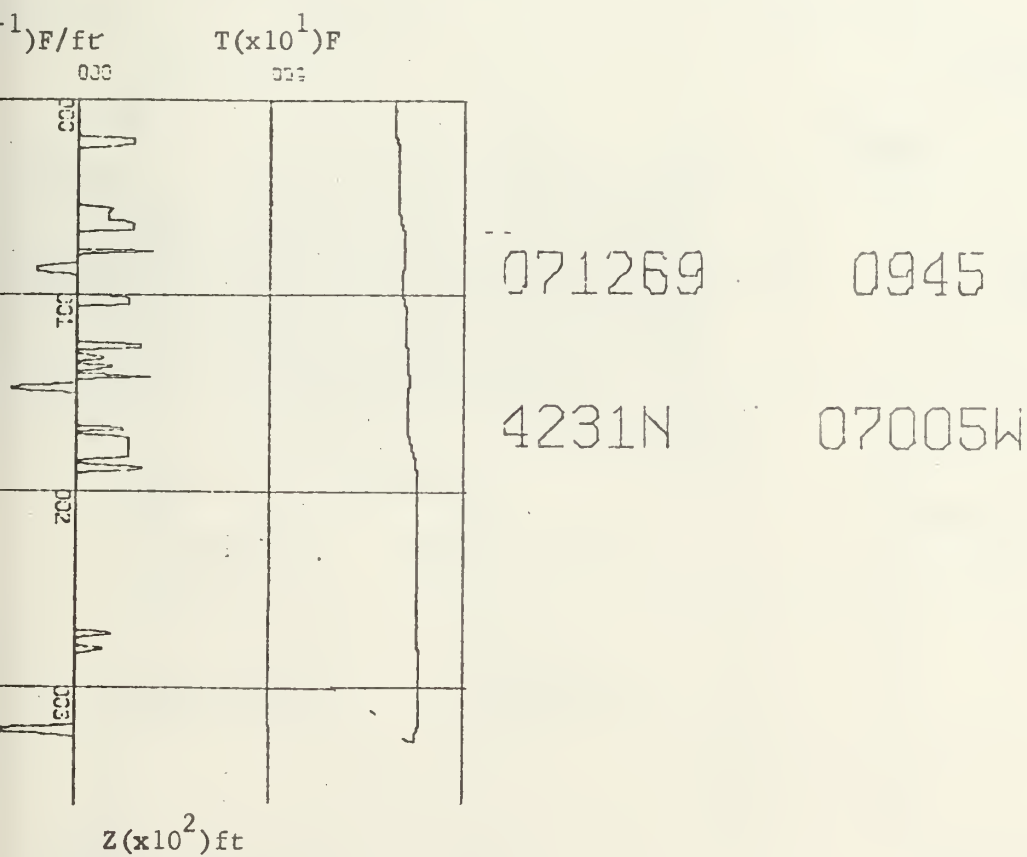
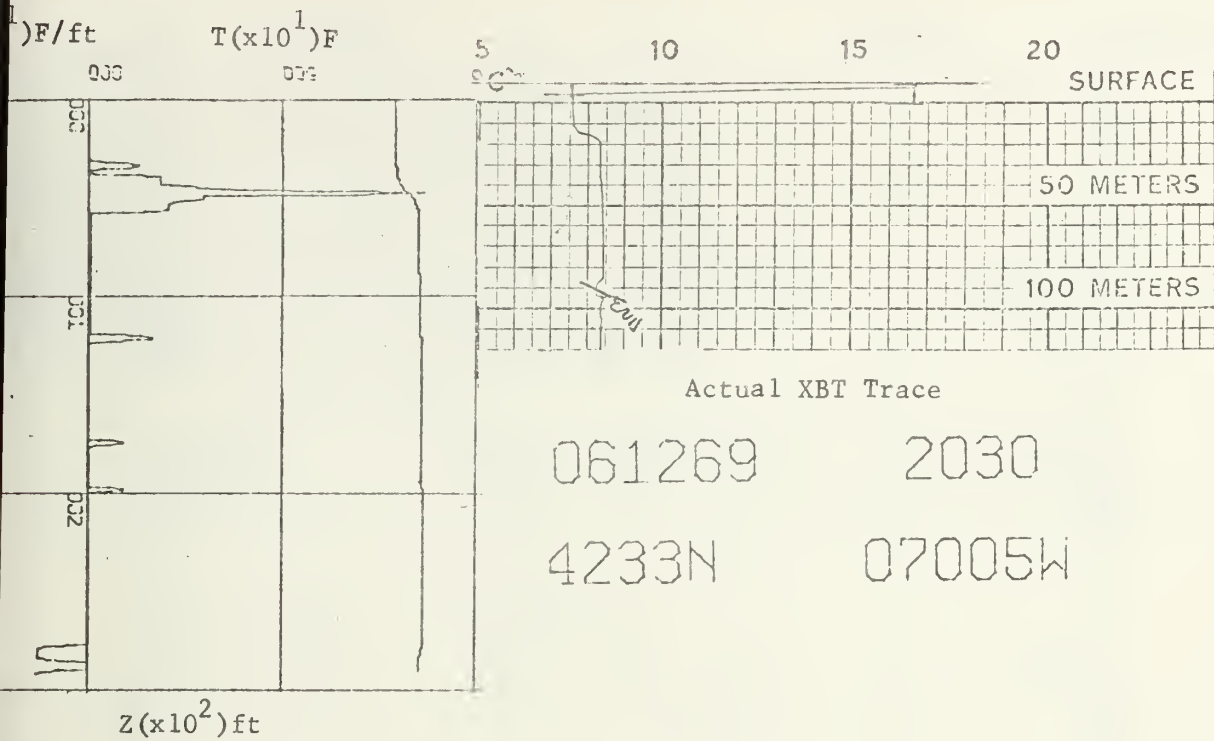


Figure 39. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Atlantic Coastal Region 6 and 7 December 1969.

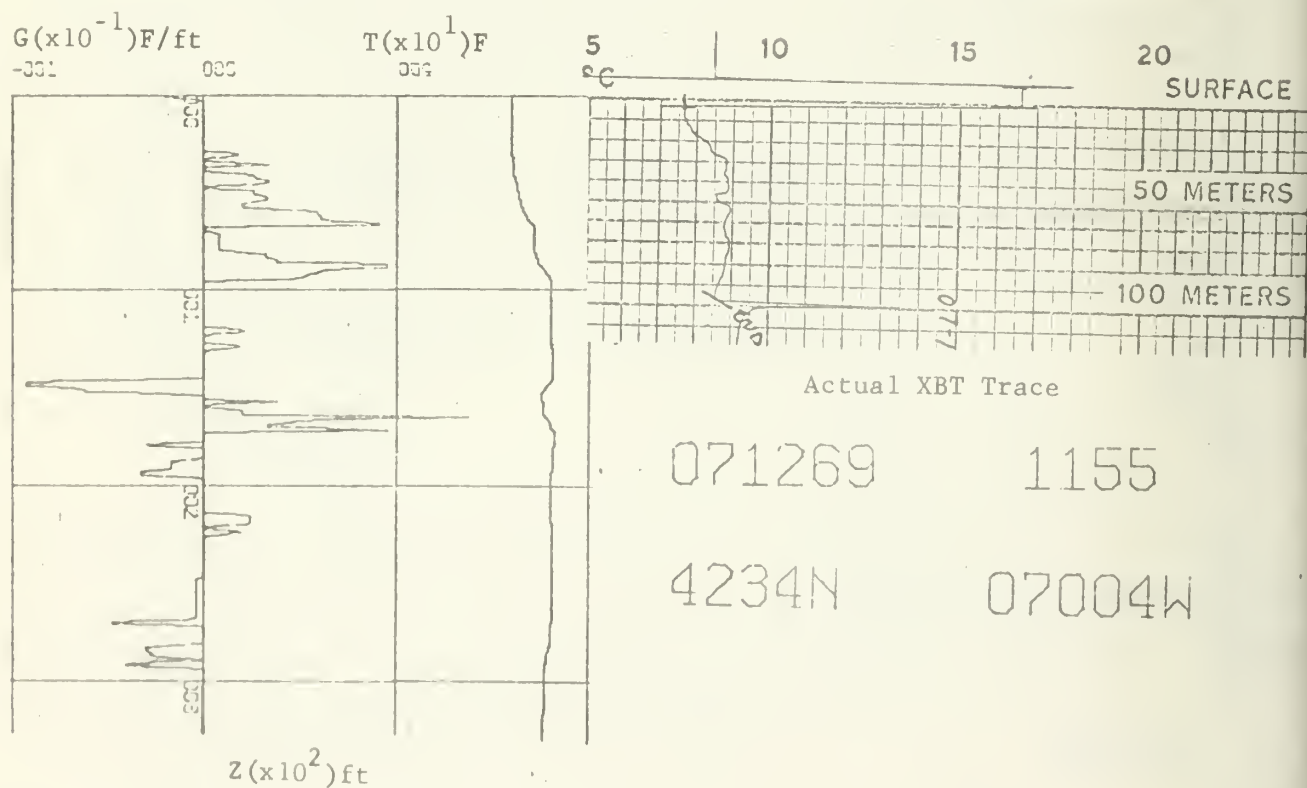
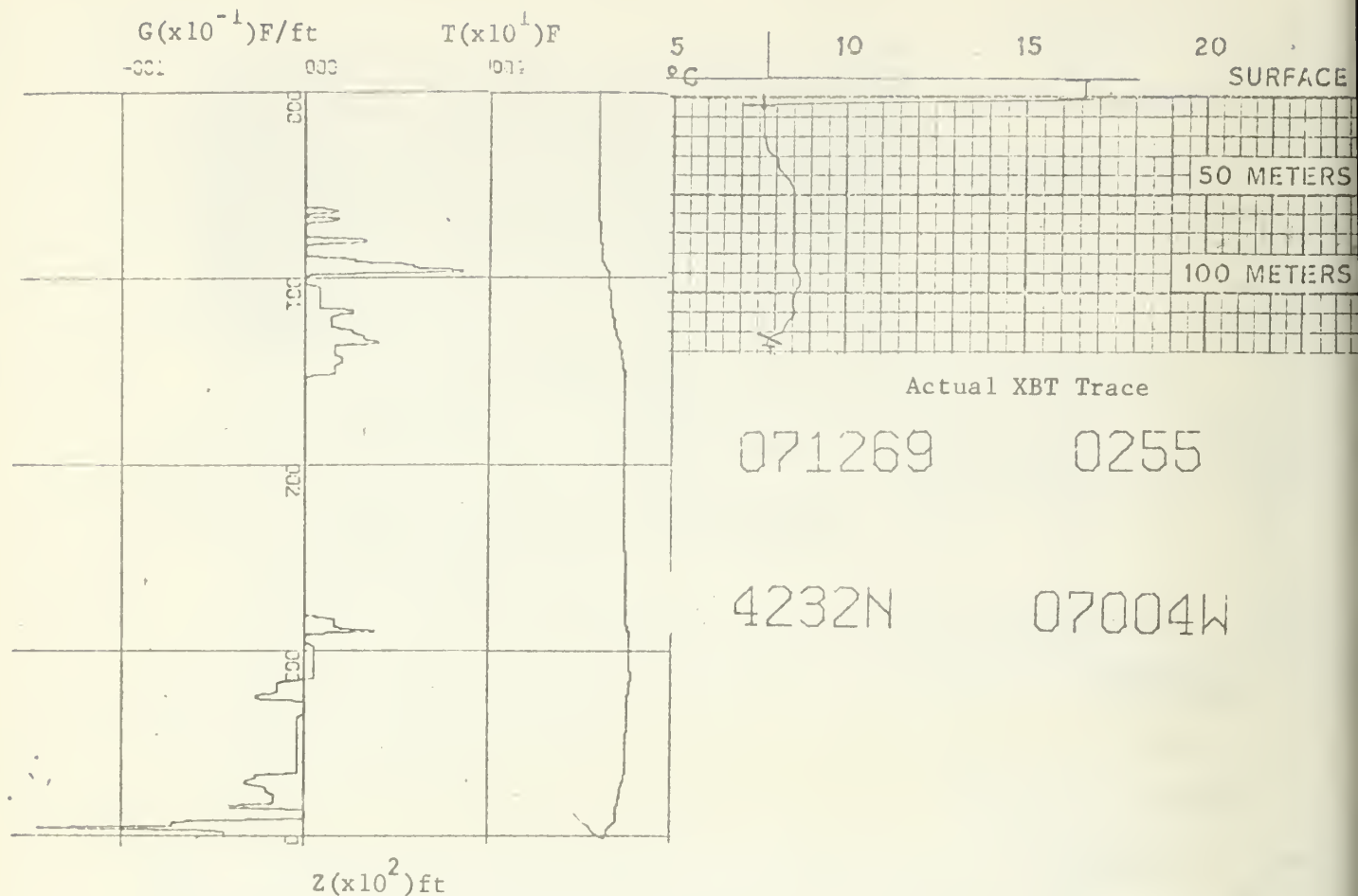
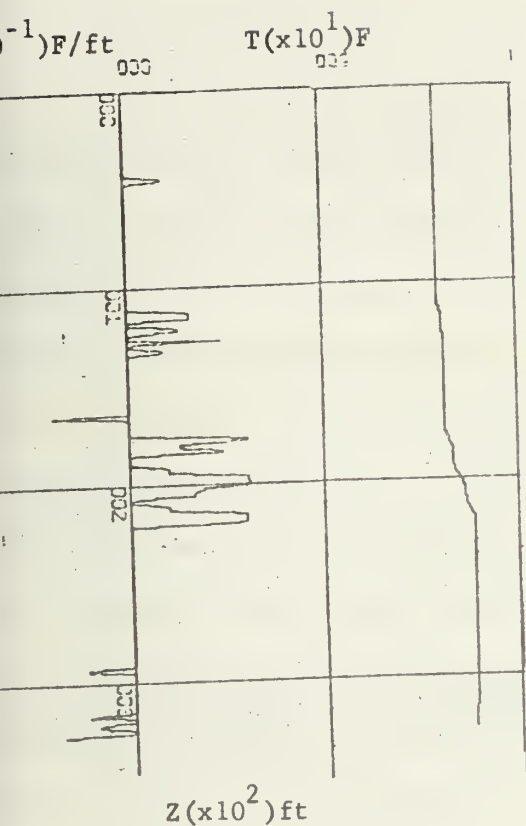


Figure 40. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Atlantic Coastal Region 7 December 1969.

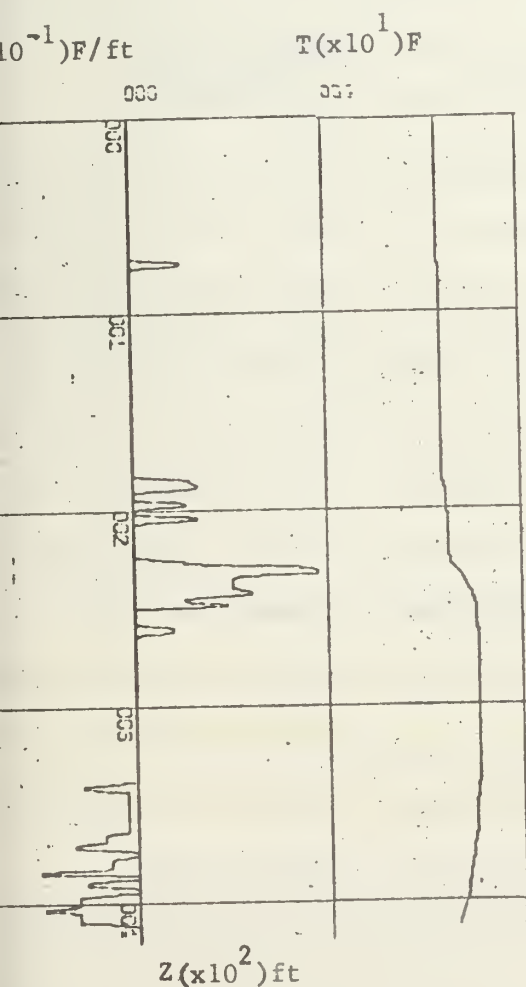


091269

1500

4255N

07003W



101269

1925

4252N

07004W

Figure 41. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Atlantic Coastal Region 9 and 10 December 1969.



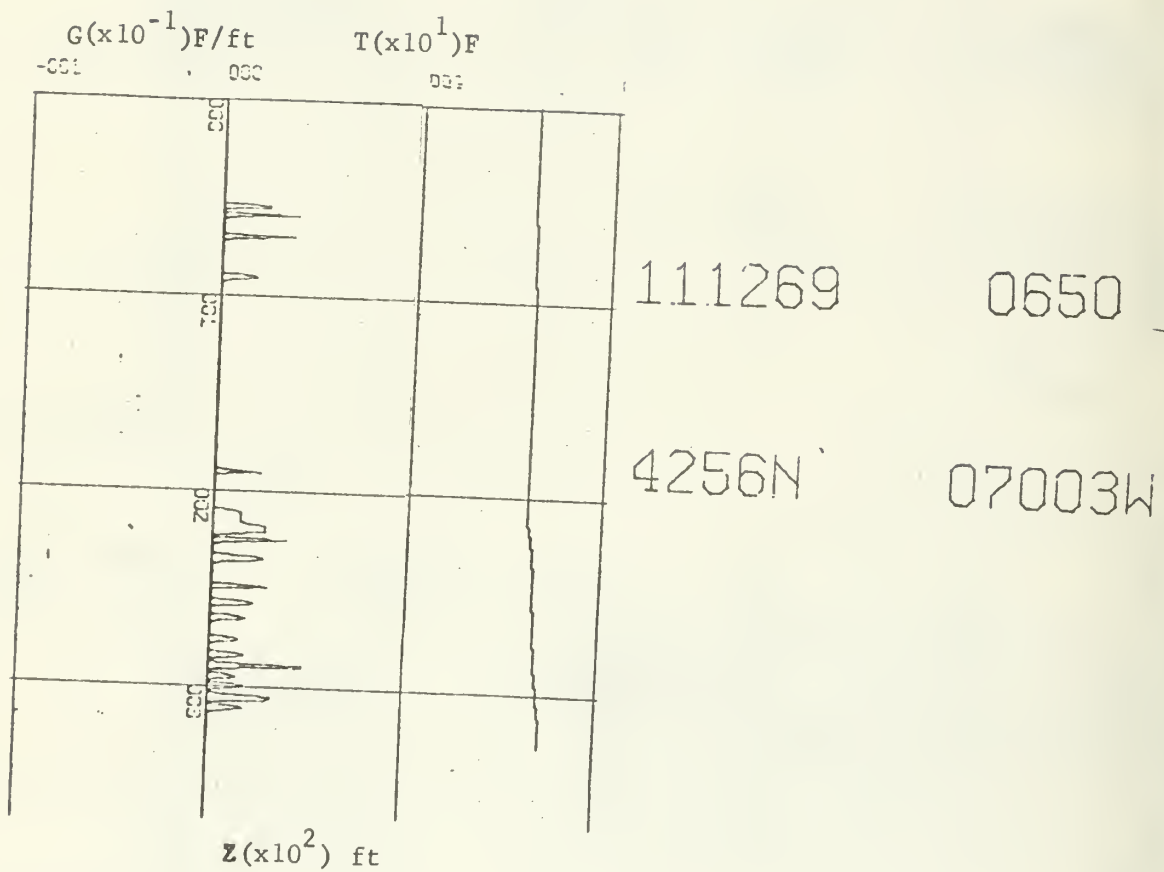


Figure 42. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Atlantic Coastal Region 11 December 1969.

The T-Z plots (Figures 43 through 50) contain a mixed layer to 200 or more feet except for one observation at 1200Z on the 19th (Figure 48b). The mixed layer transients are marked with spikes in the G-Z plots. Figure 50 shows transients with the greatest magnitude in the upper 100 feet. The seasonal thermocline is characterized by two steps (Figure 44, for example). The G-Z plots in most cases show this second step, averaging at a depth about 300 feet, with good resolution. Some strong gradients are found in the 200 to 300 feet depth region in every G-Z plot except in Figure 48b. This figure appears to indicate flow over a hump or have erroneous depth values. The fall-rate of the XBT probe, appearing erroneously in the T-Z plot, indicates a possible malfunction — of the probe or the recorder for this one cast.

### 3. Pacific Oceanic Region

A series of XBT traces, taken over a week period in October 1968, in the deep waters (over 100 nm off the West Coast near San Diego, California) were used for this observation. A composite T-Z plot of the actual XBT temperature-depth traces is shown in Figure 51. This region is sub-tropical oceanic [Tully, 1964]. Plots of T-Z and G-Z (Figures 52 through 65) are presented from the surface to 900 feet. The seasonal thermocline is evident in all plots. The strong thermocline is clearly shown. Some transients are notable. Few inversion layers were present, and, generally, they were found only in the near-surface layer. The G-Z plot is characterized by strong gradients in the seasonal thermocline and by weak gradients in the main thermocline, each separate layer separated by isothermal waters from one to forty feet thick.

The mixed layer contained numerous temperature fluctuations in most cases. Some inversions, in particular the one at 0600Z on 14 October

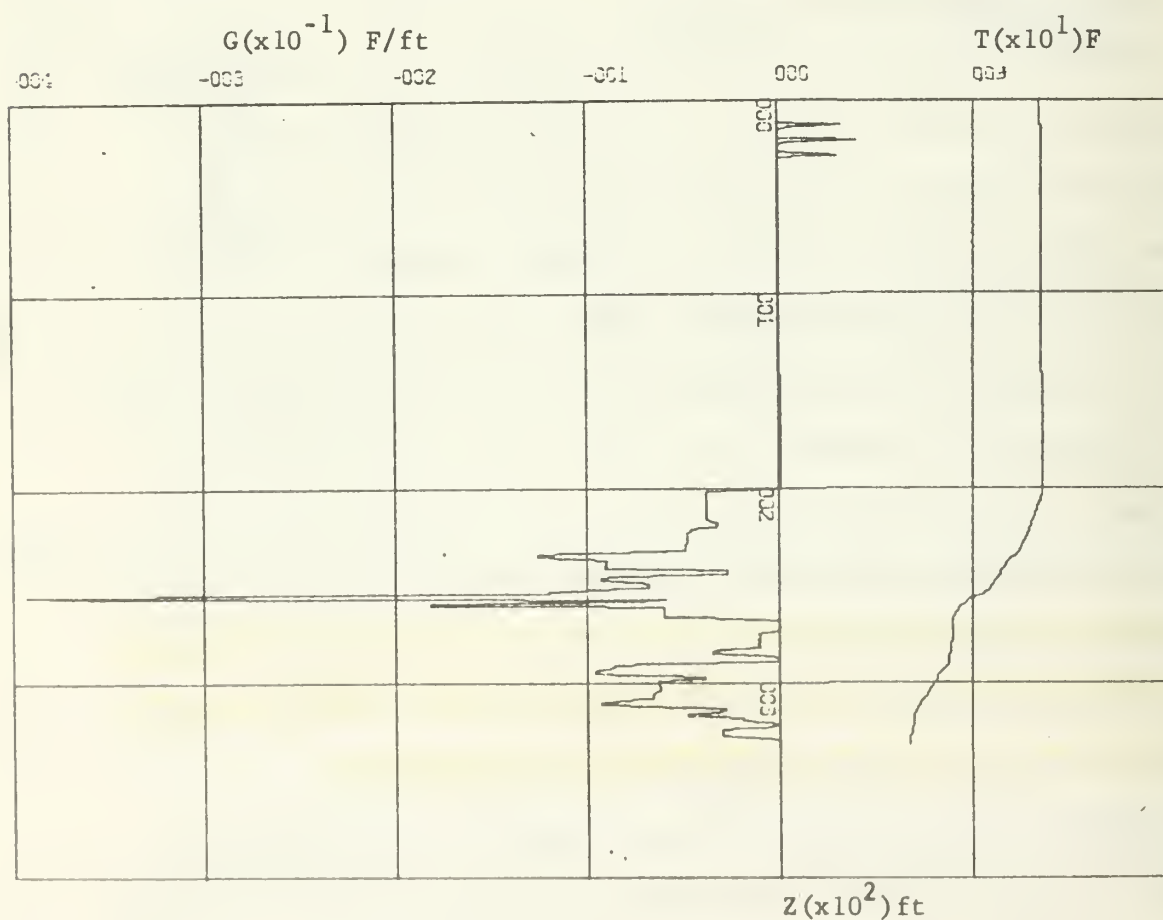
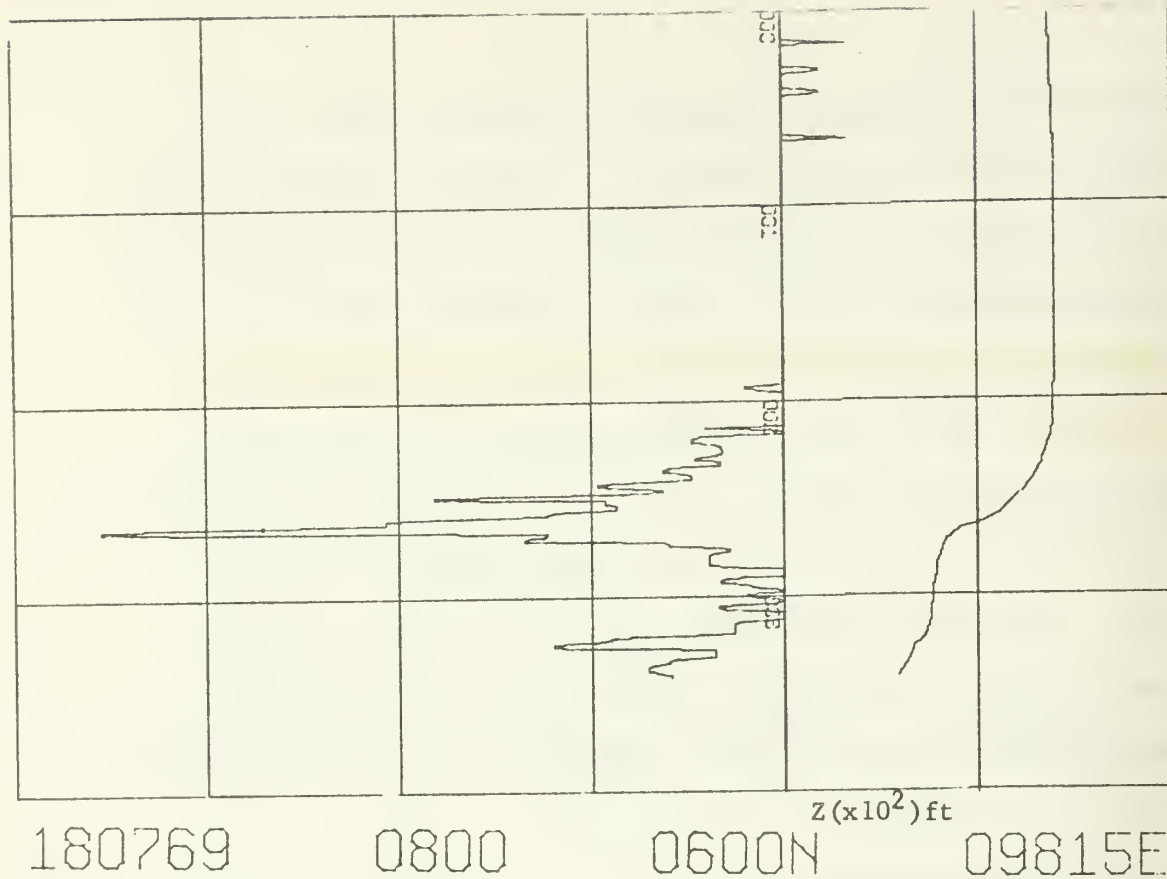


Figure 43. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Andaman Sea Region for 18 July 1969.

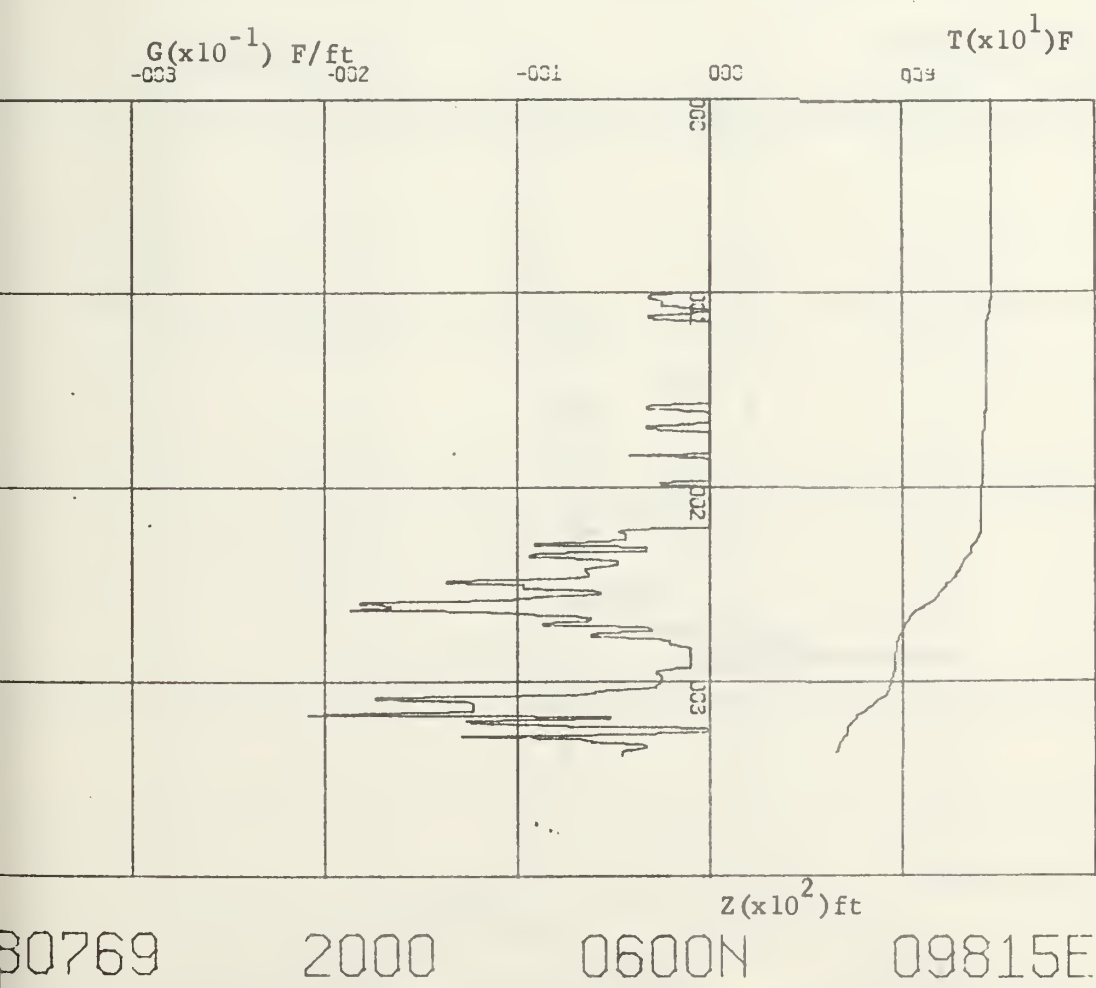
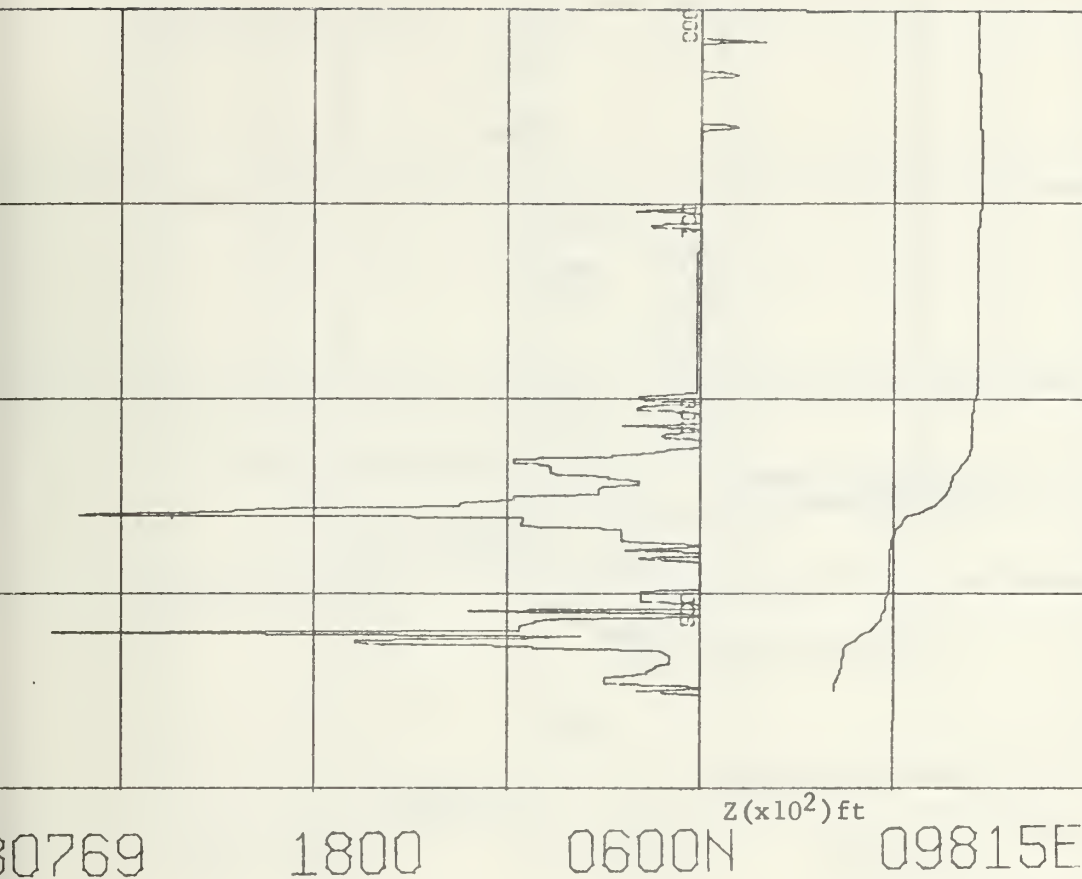


Figure 44. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Andaman Sea Region for 18 July 1969.

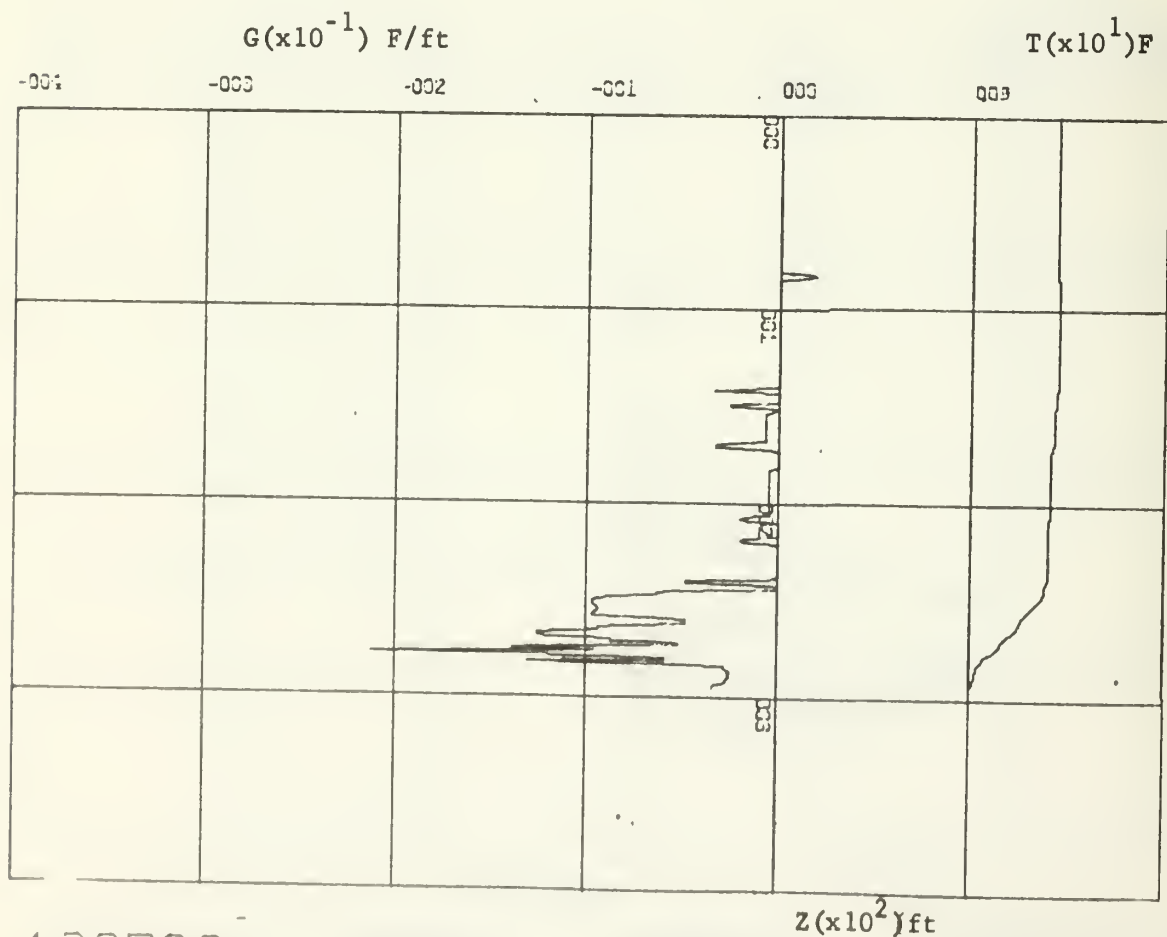
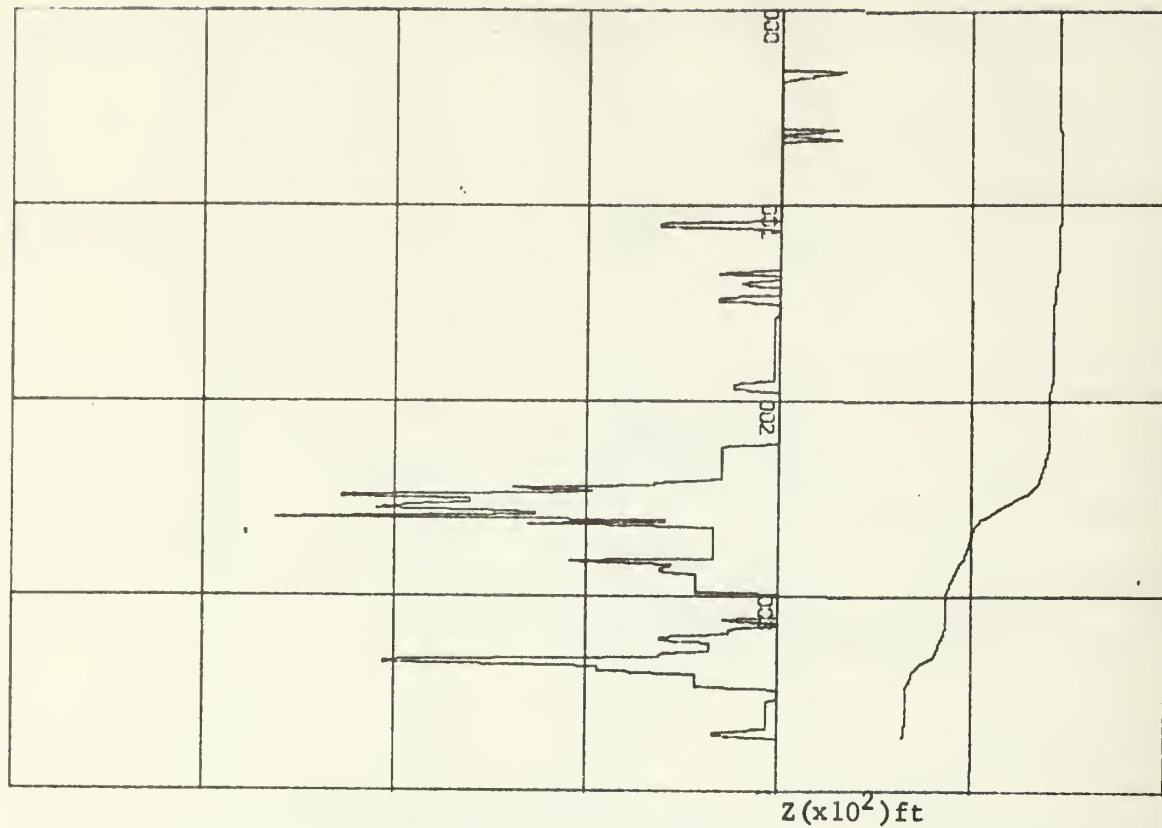


Figure 45. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Andaman Sea Region for 18 and 19 July 1969.



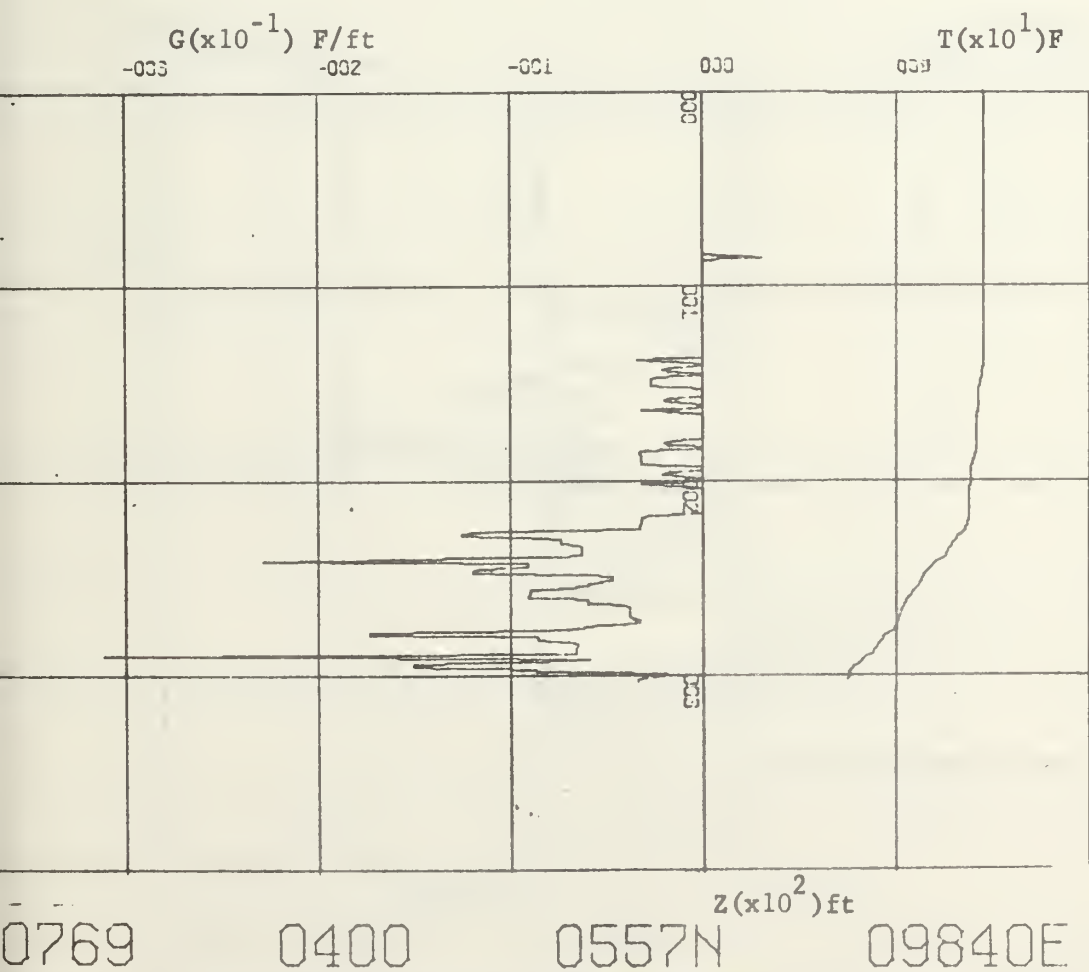
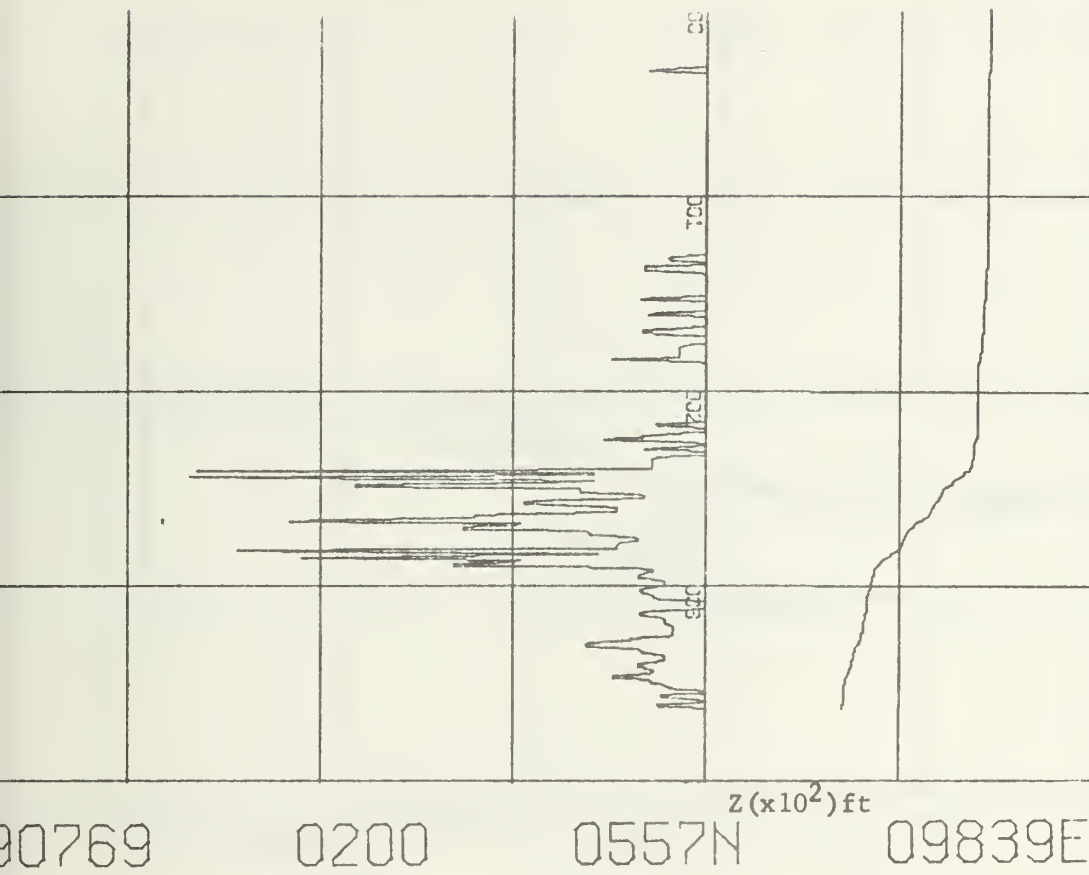


Figure 46. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Andaman Sea Region for 19 July 1969.

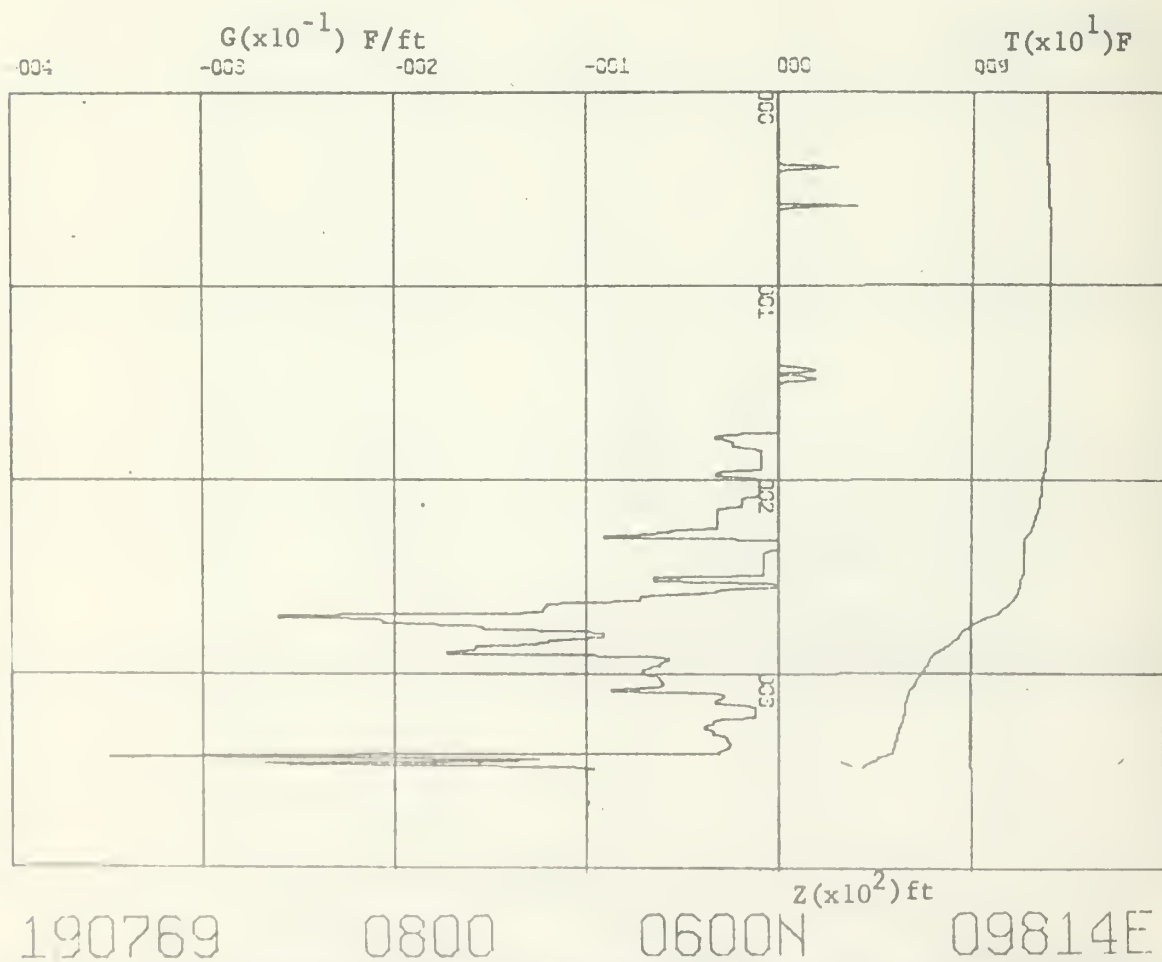
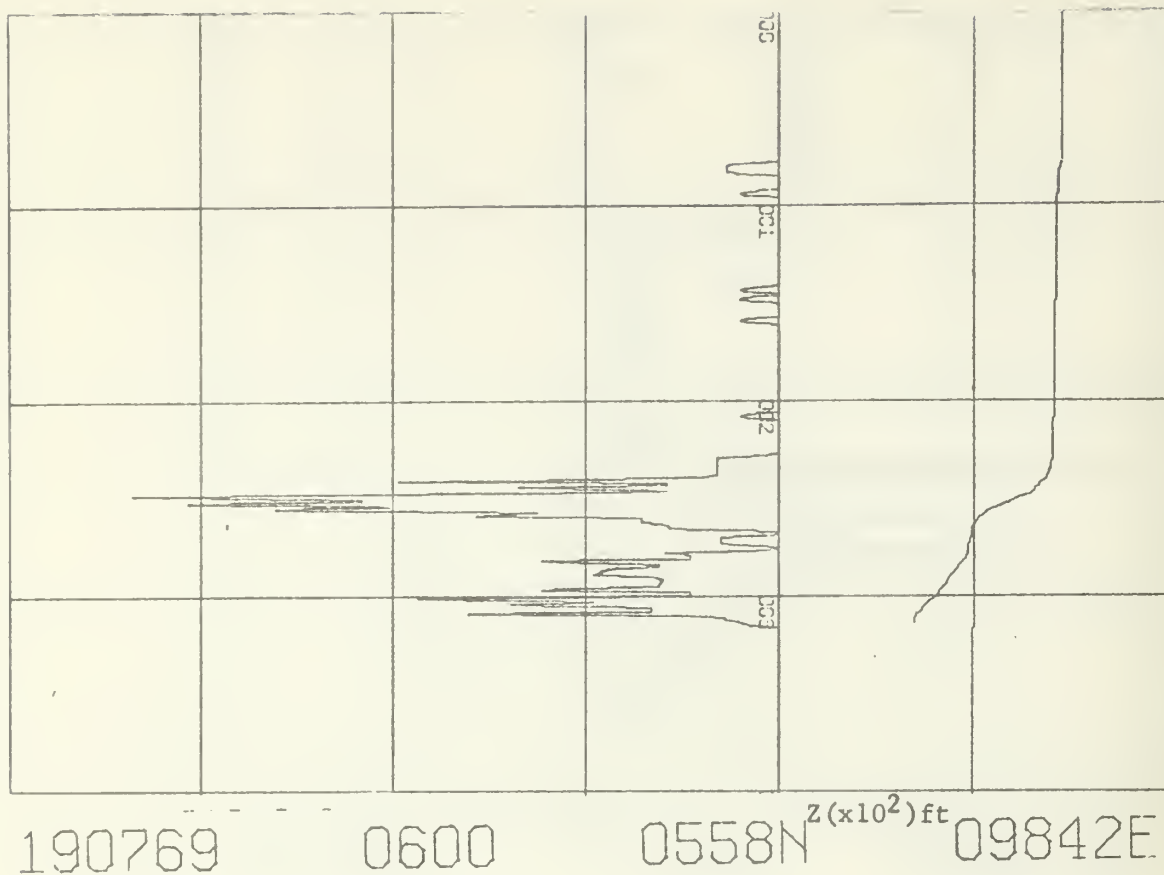


Figure 47. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Andaman Sea Region for 19 July 1969.

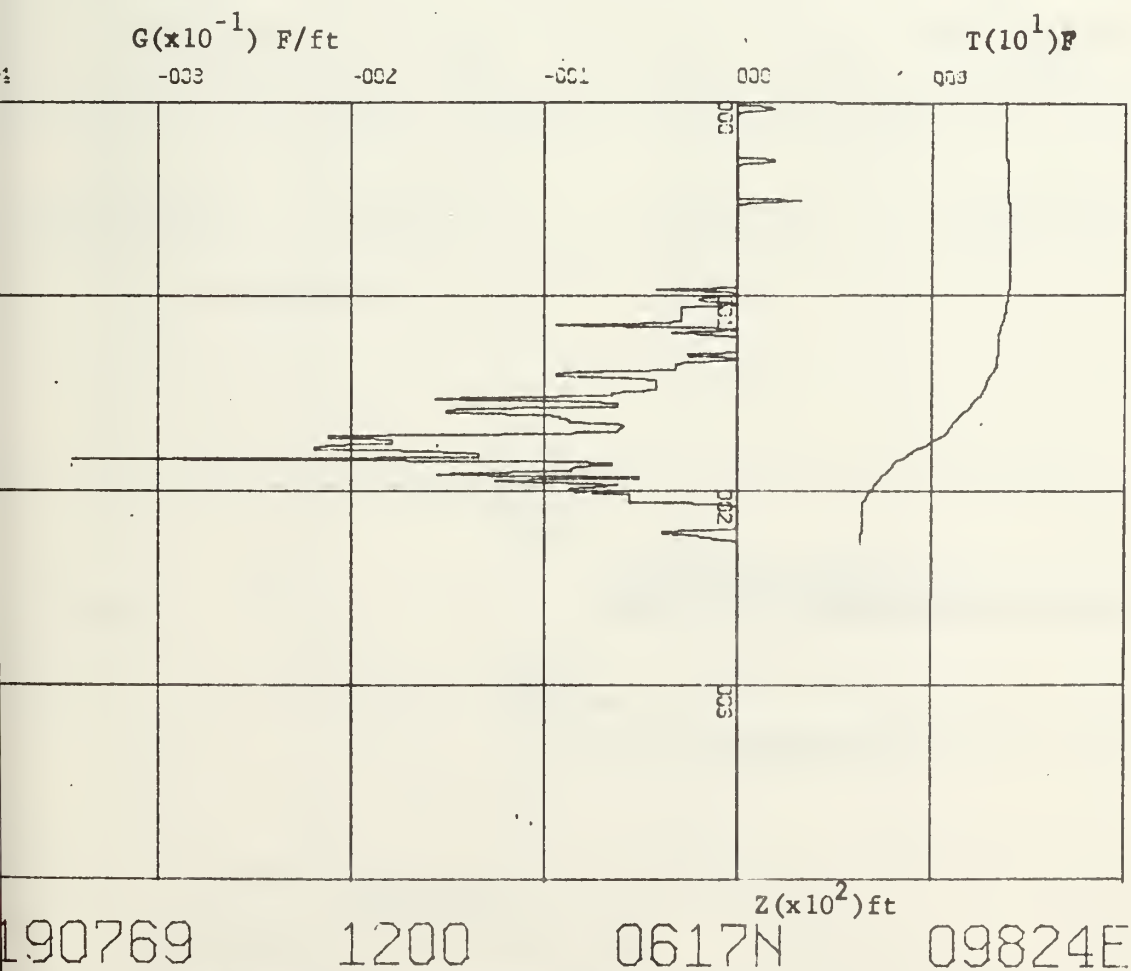
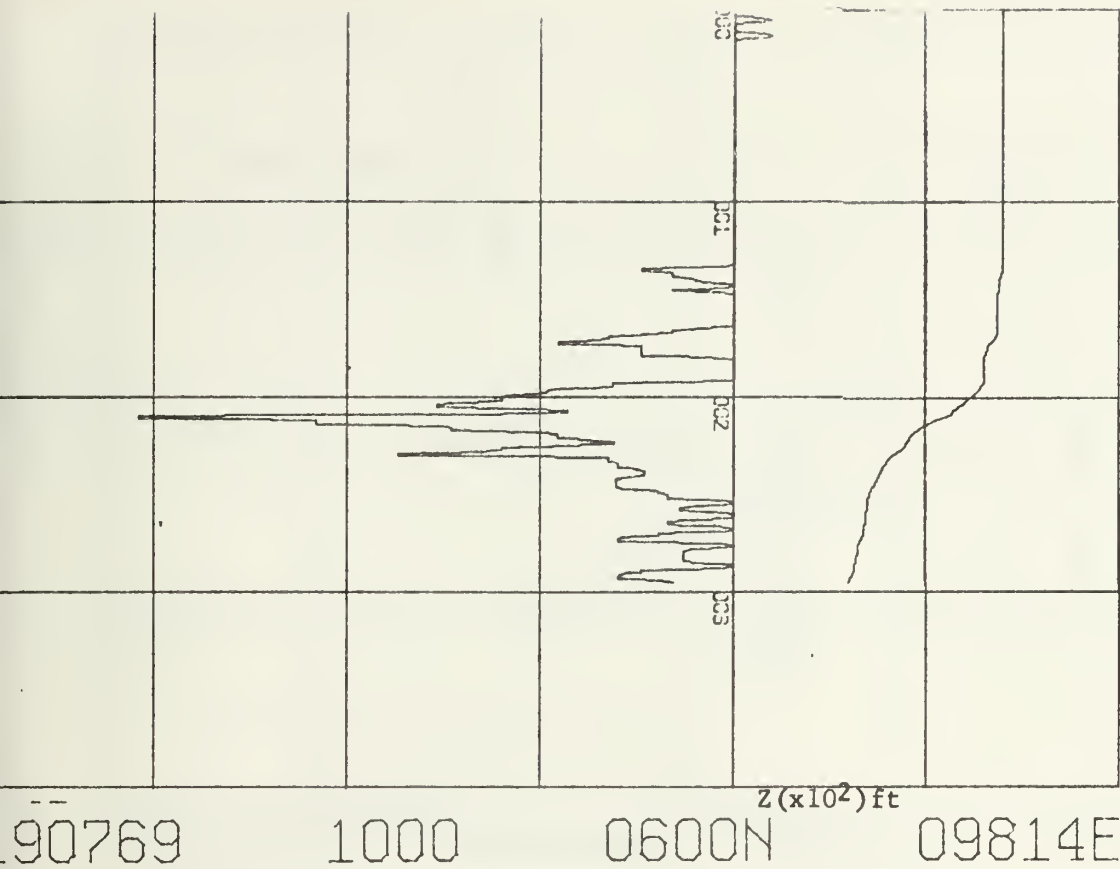


Figure 48. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Andaman Sea Region for 19 July 1969.

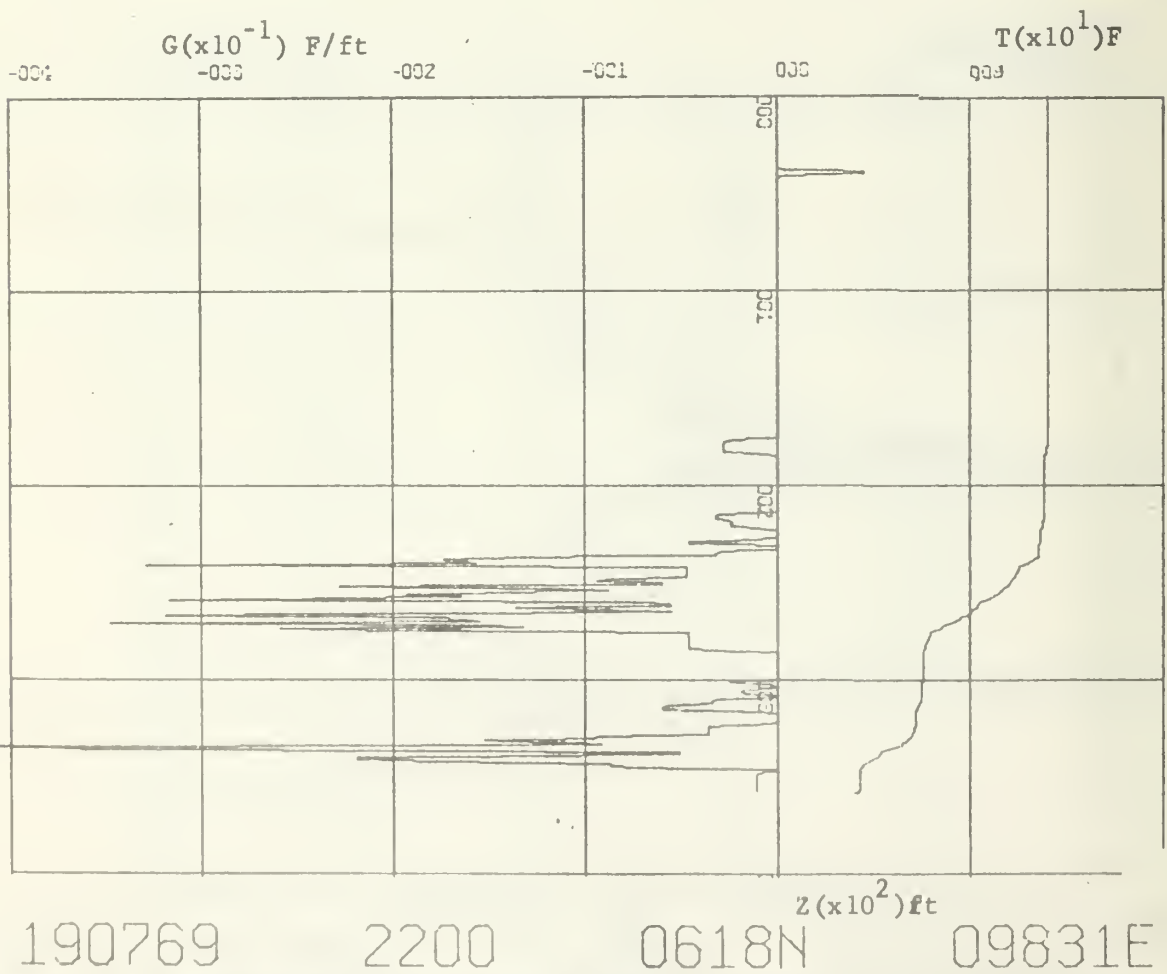
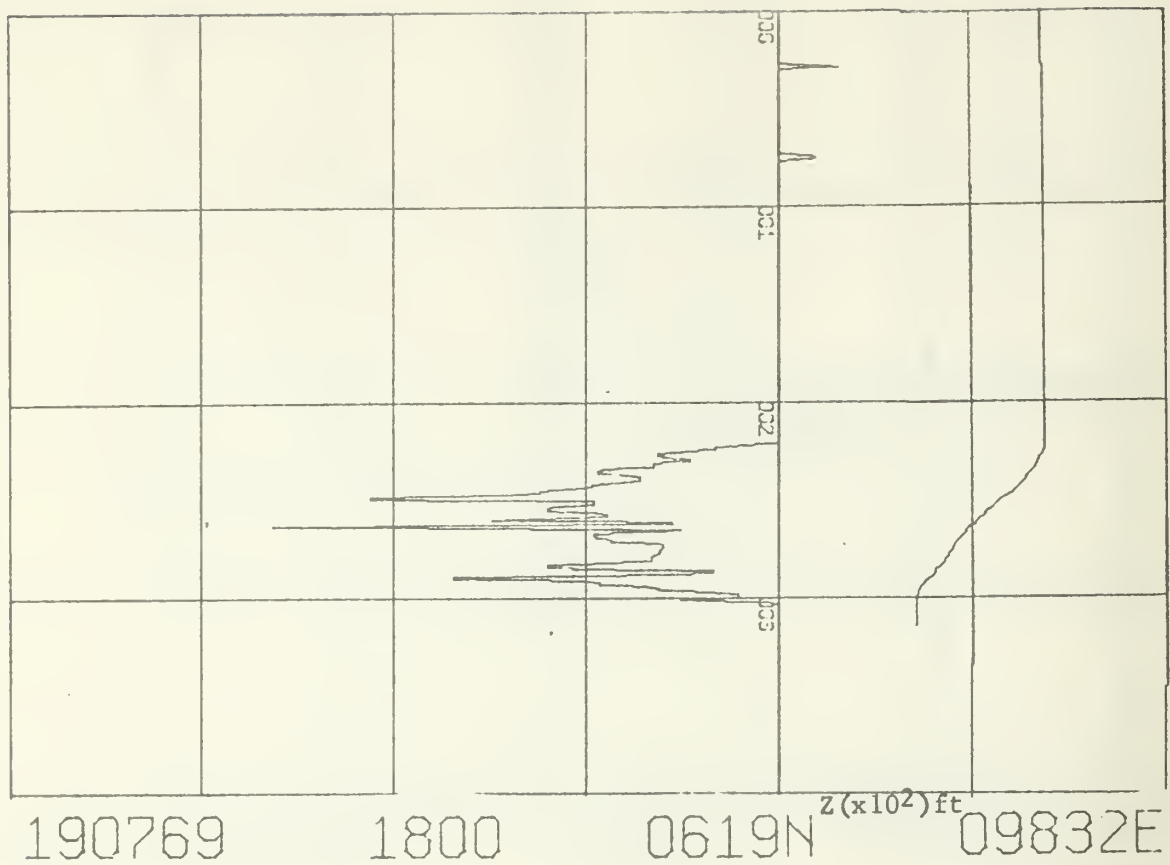
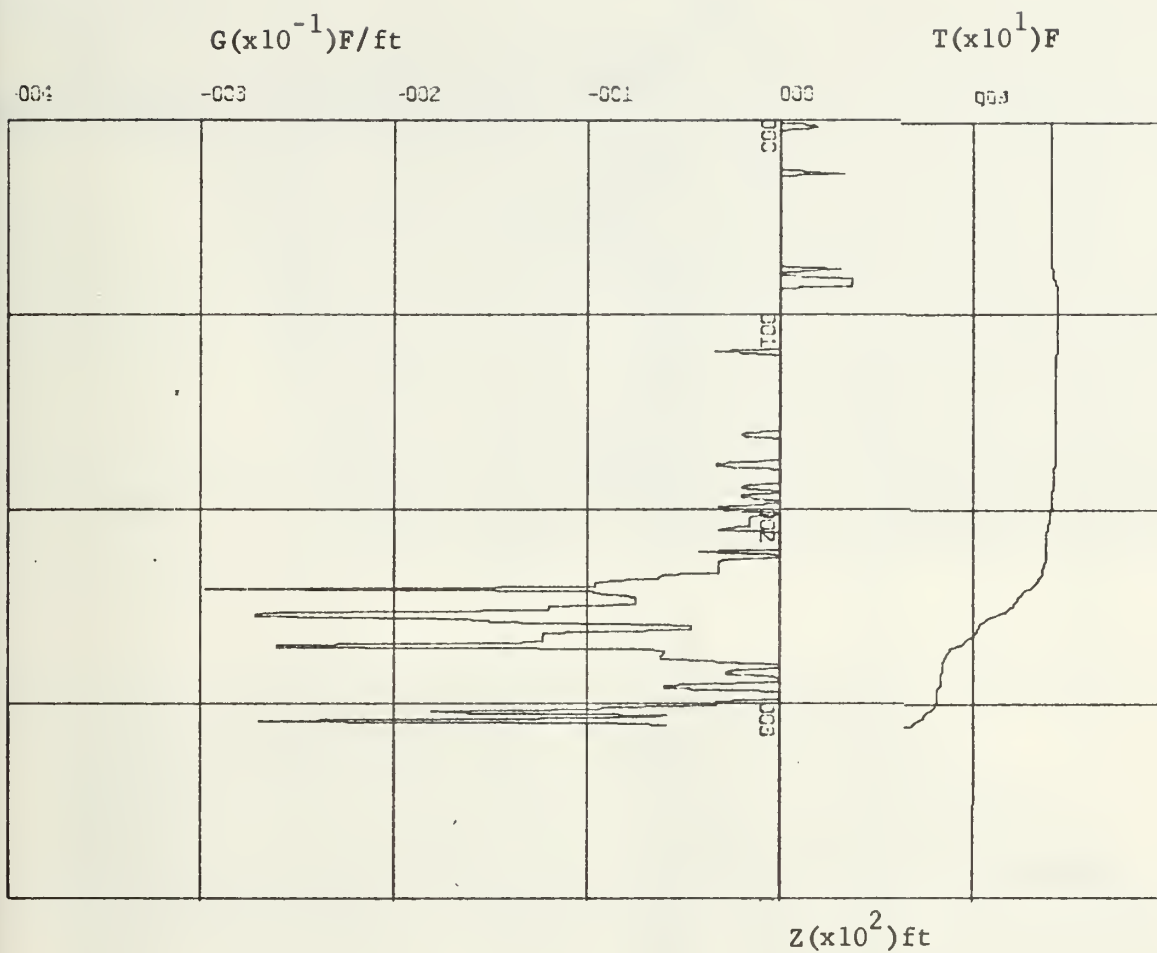


Figure 49. T-A and G-Z Plots for Andaman Sea Region for 19 July 1969.



200769      0000      0622N      09832E

Figure 50. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Andaman Sea Region for 20 July 1969.



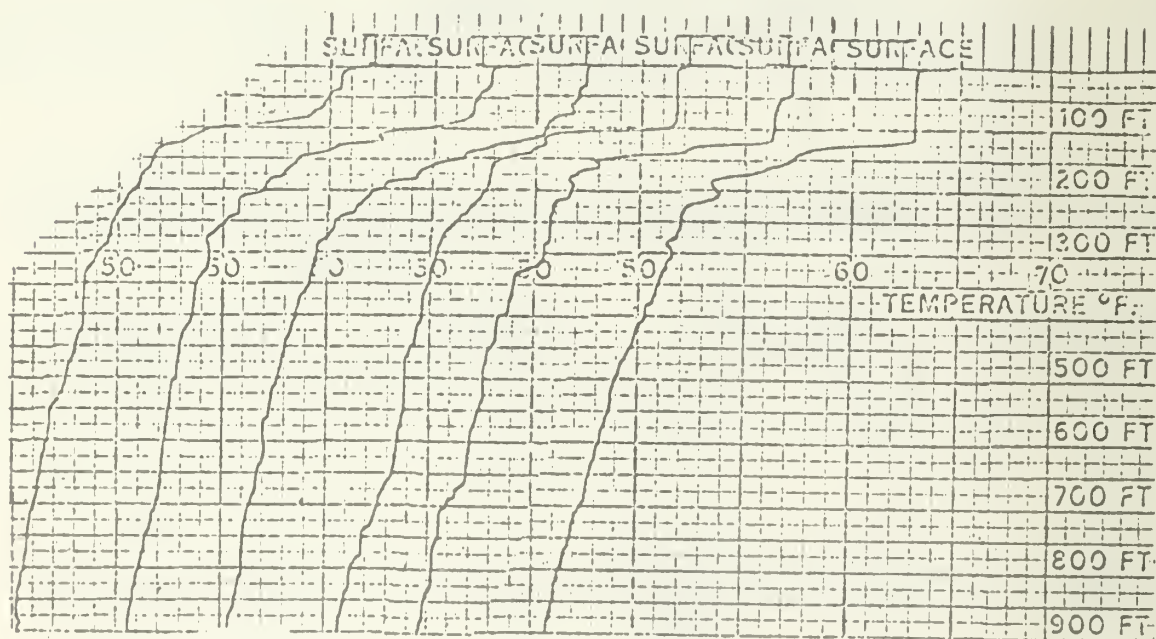
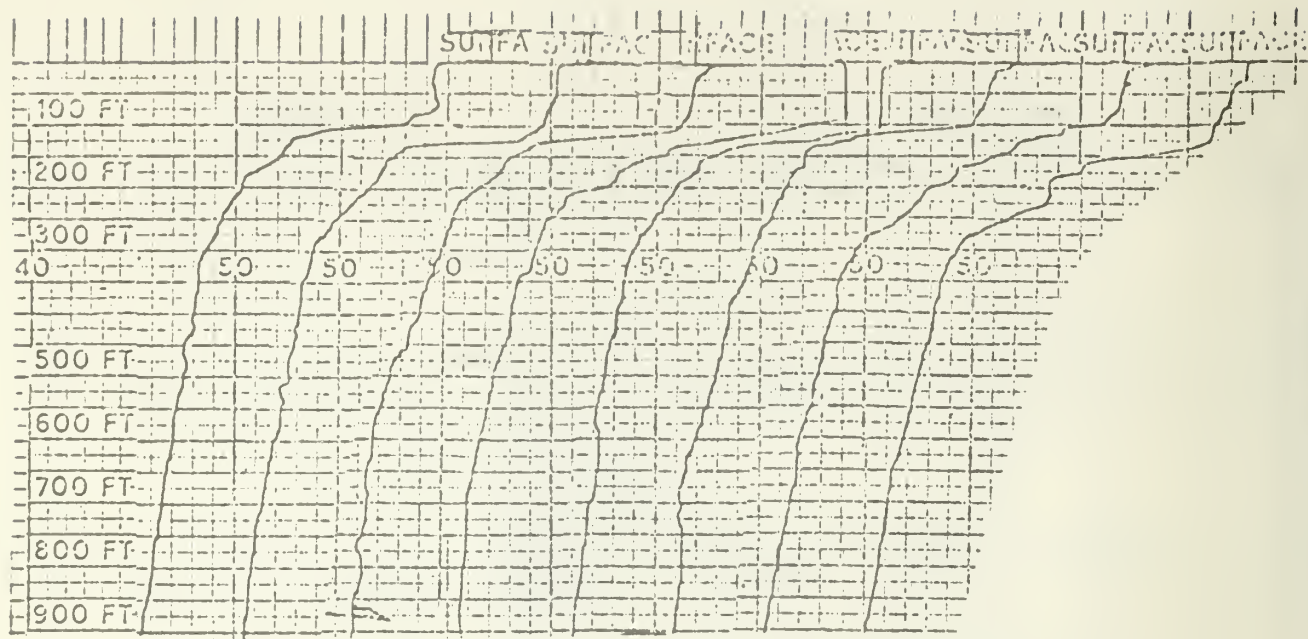
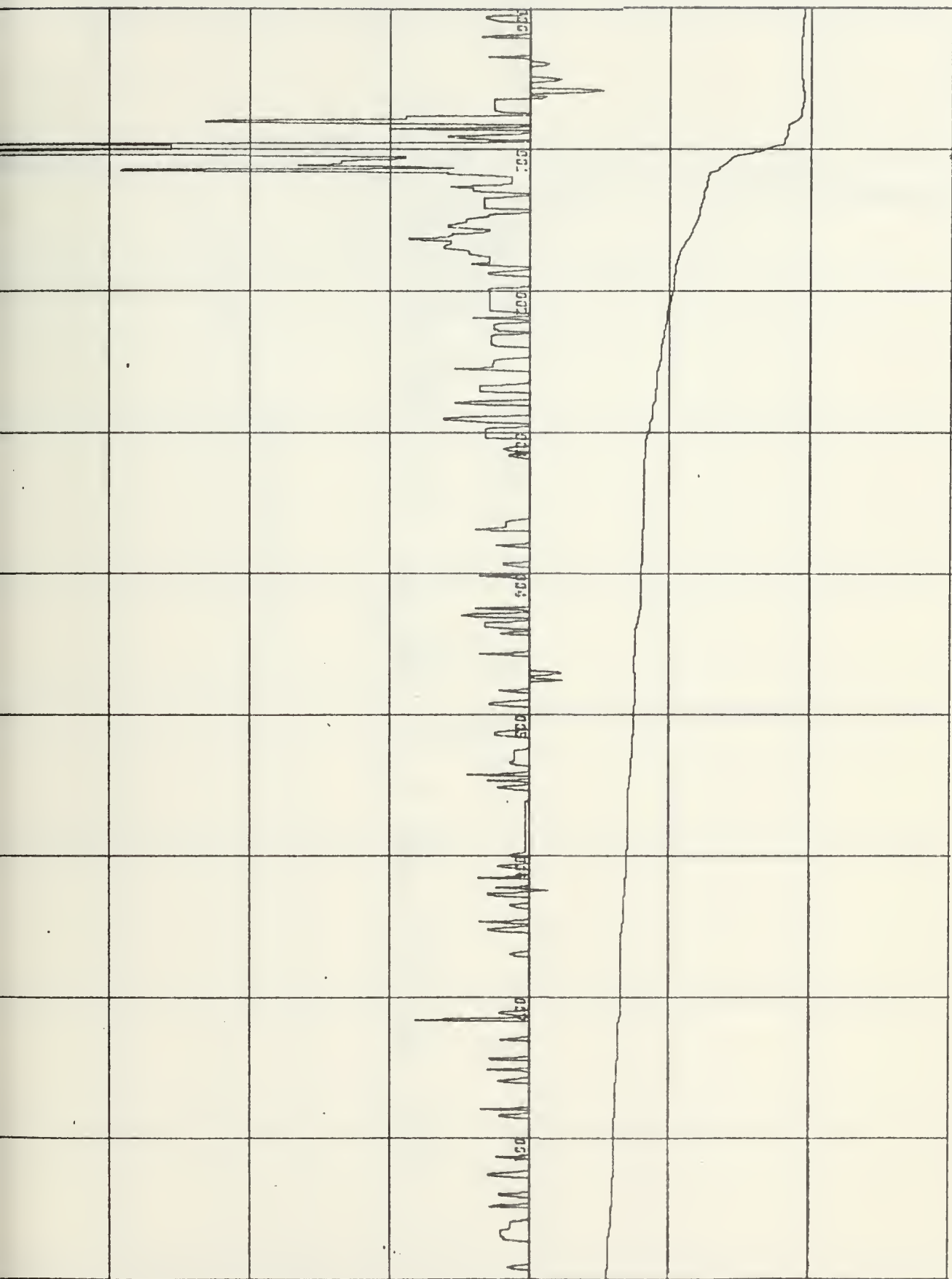
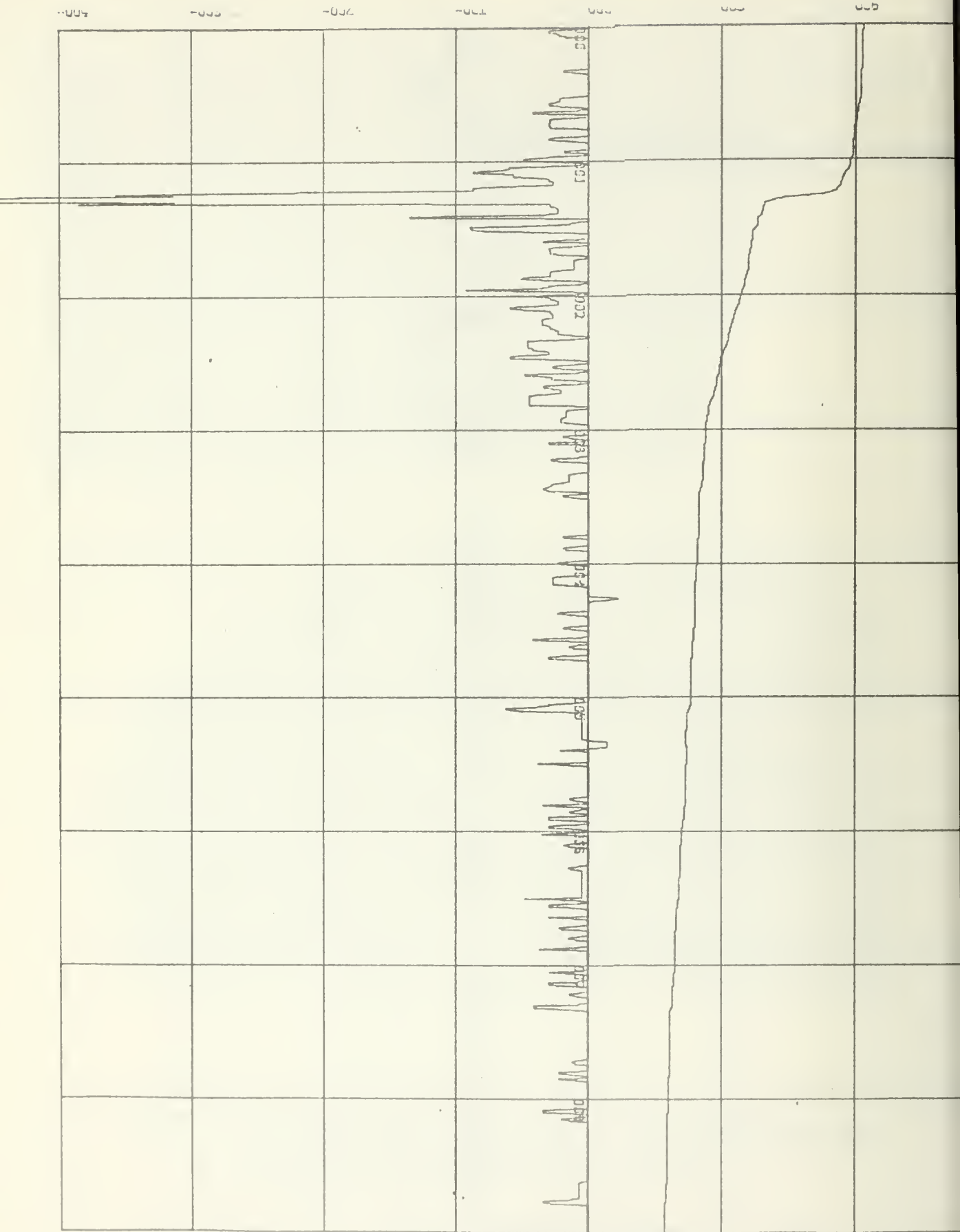


Figure 51. Composite T-Z Plot from Actual XBT Traces Down to 900 feet for Region 100 nm off San Diego. Data are given in time sequence from 10 through 16 October 1968.



101068 1800  $Z(x10^2)ft$  3246N 12043W

Figure 52. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 1800Z 10 October 1968.



111068

0600  $Z(x10^2)ft$  3240N

12039W

Figure 53. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 0600Z 11 October 1

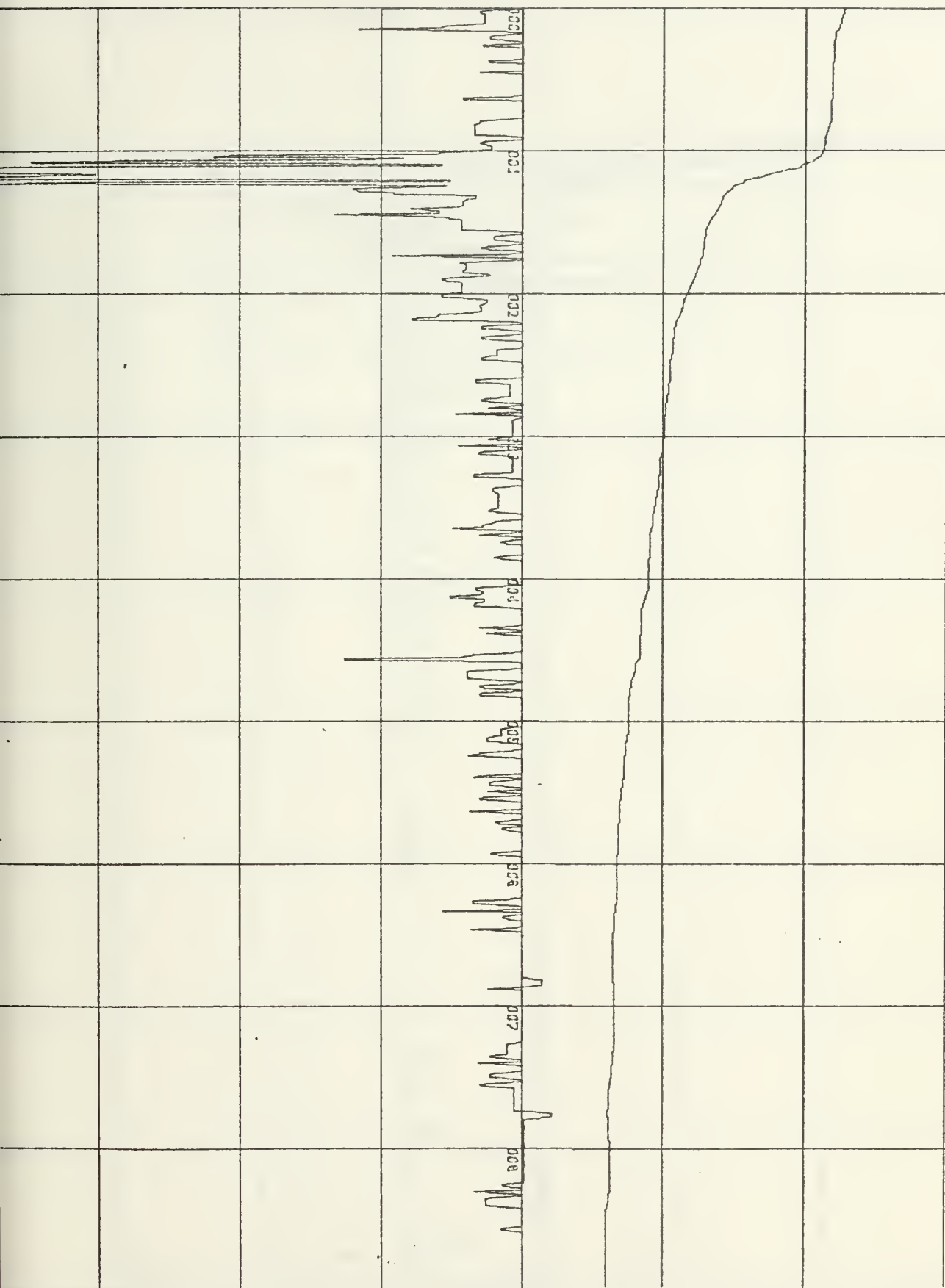
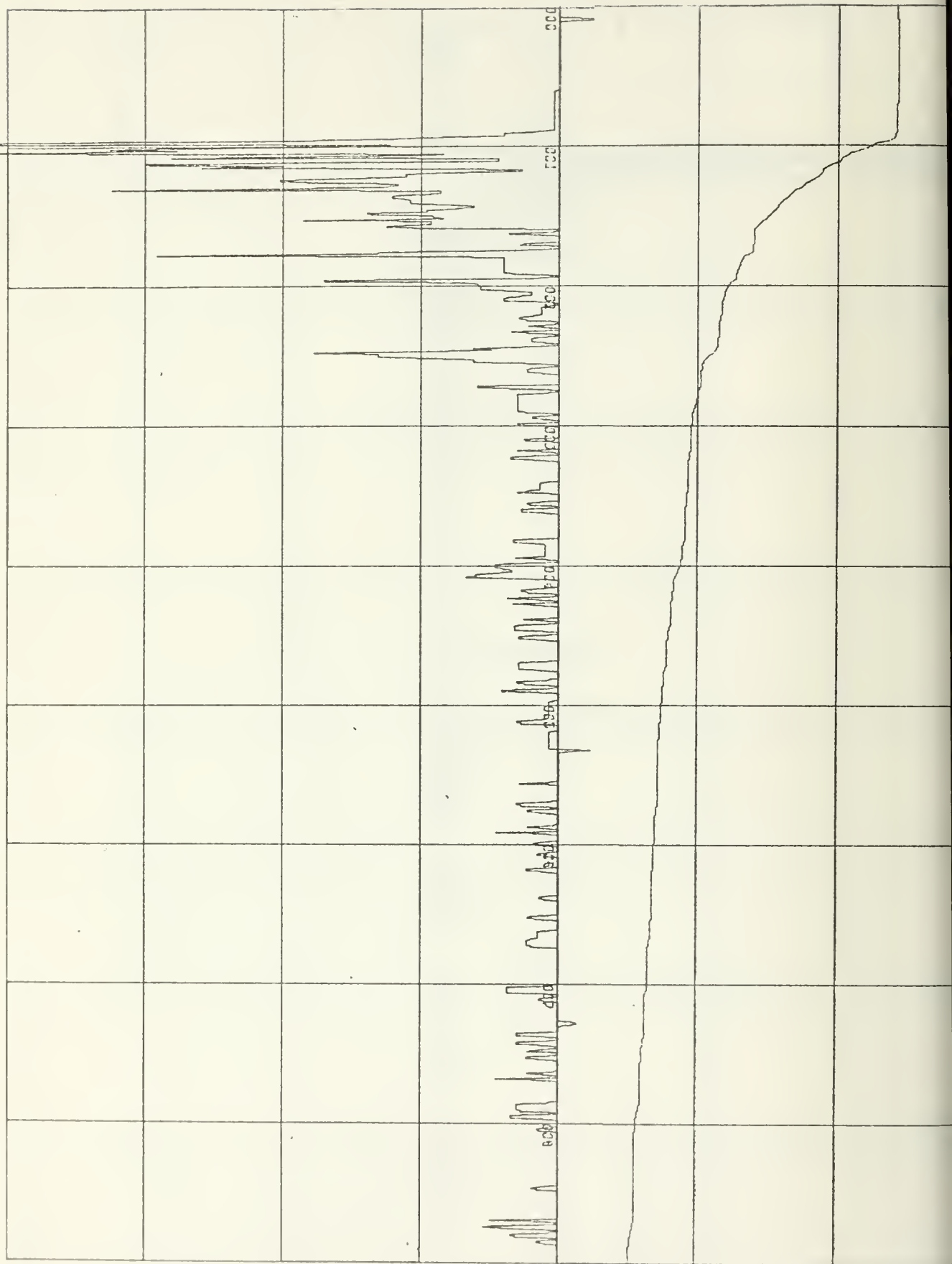


Figure 54. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 0000Z 12 October 1968.



121068

0600

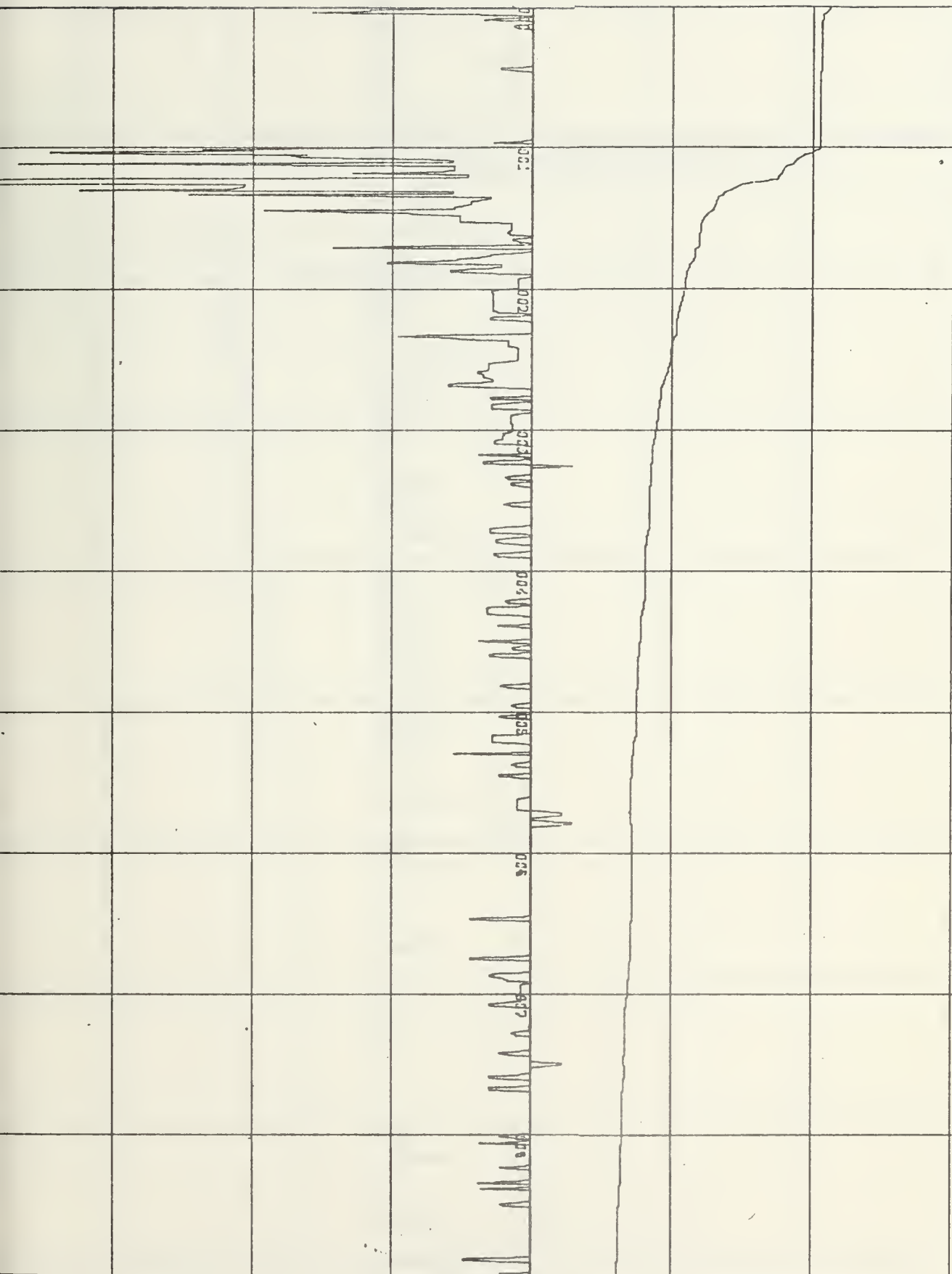
$Z(x10^2)ft$

3227N

11953W

Figure 55. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 0600Z 12 October 1968.





$Z(x10^2)ft$

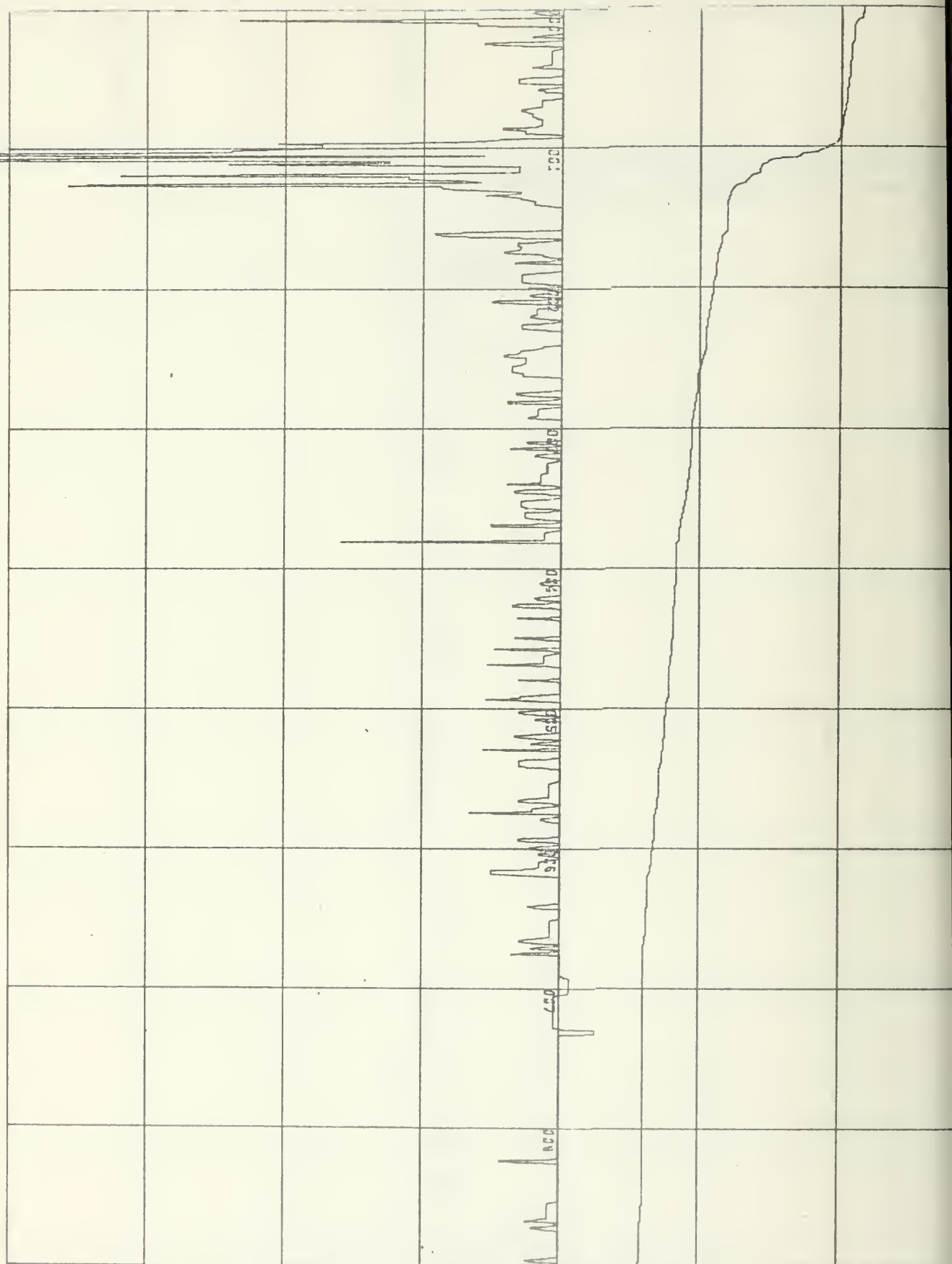
121068

1800

3252N

12045W

Figure 56. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 1800Z 12 October 1968.



$Z(x10^2)$  ft

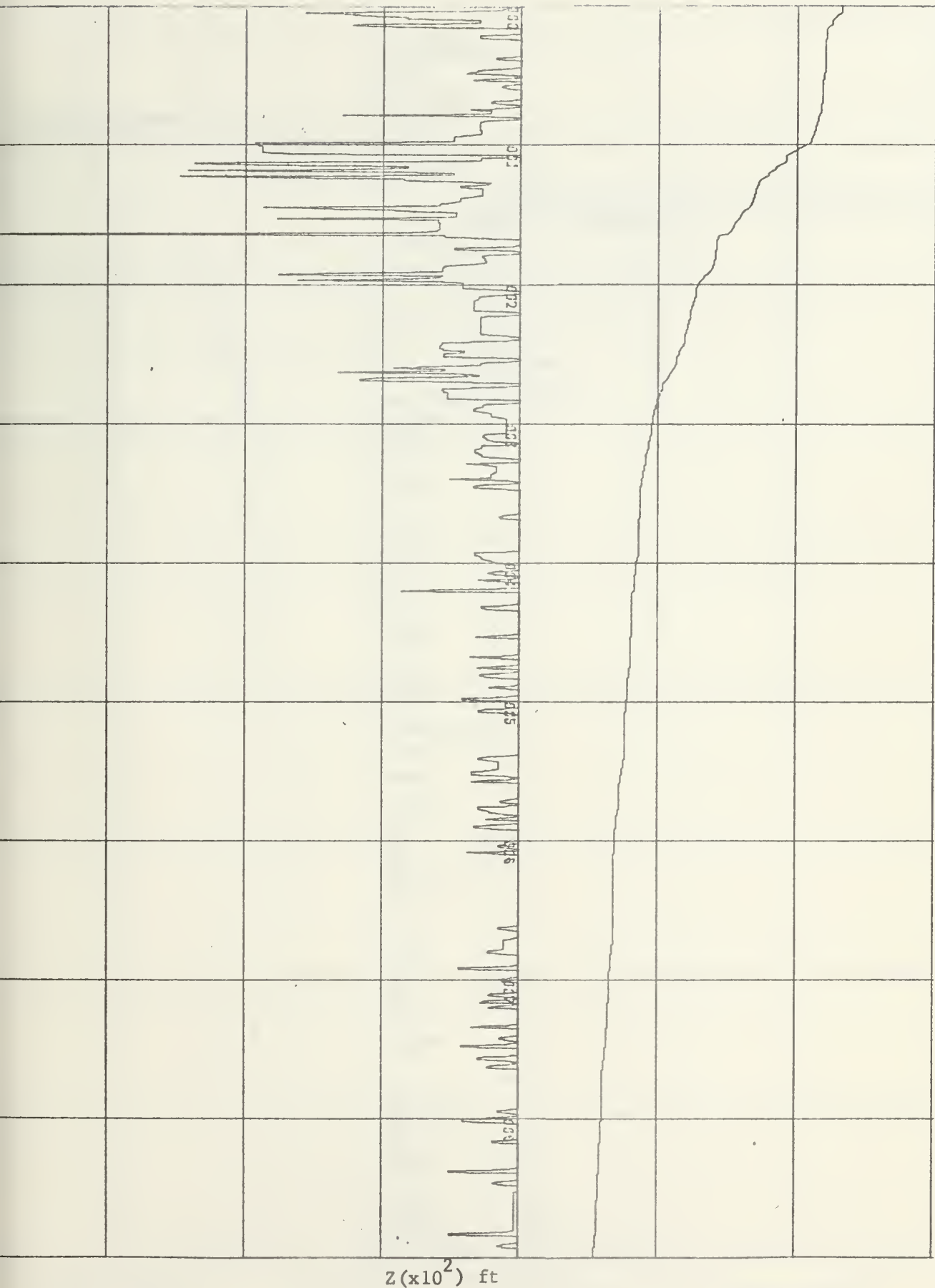
131068

0000

3252N

12052W

Figure 57. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 0000Z 13 October 1968



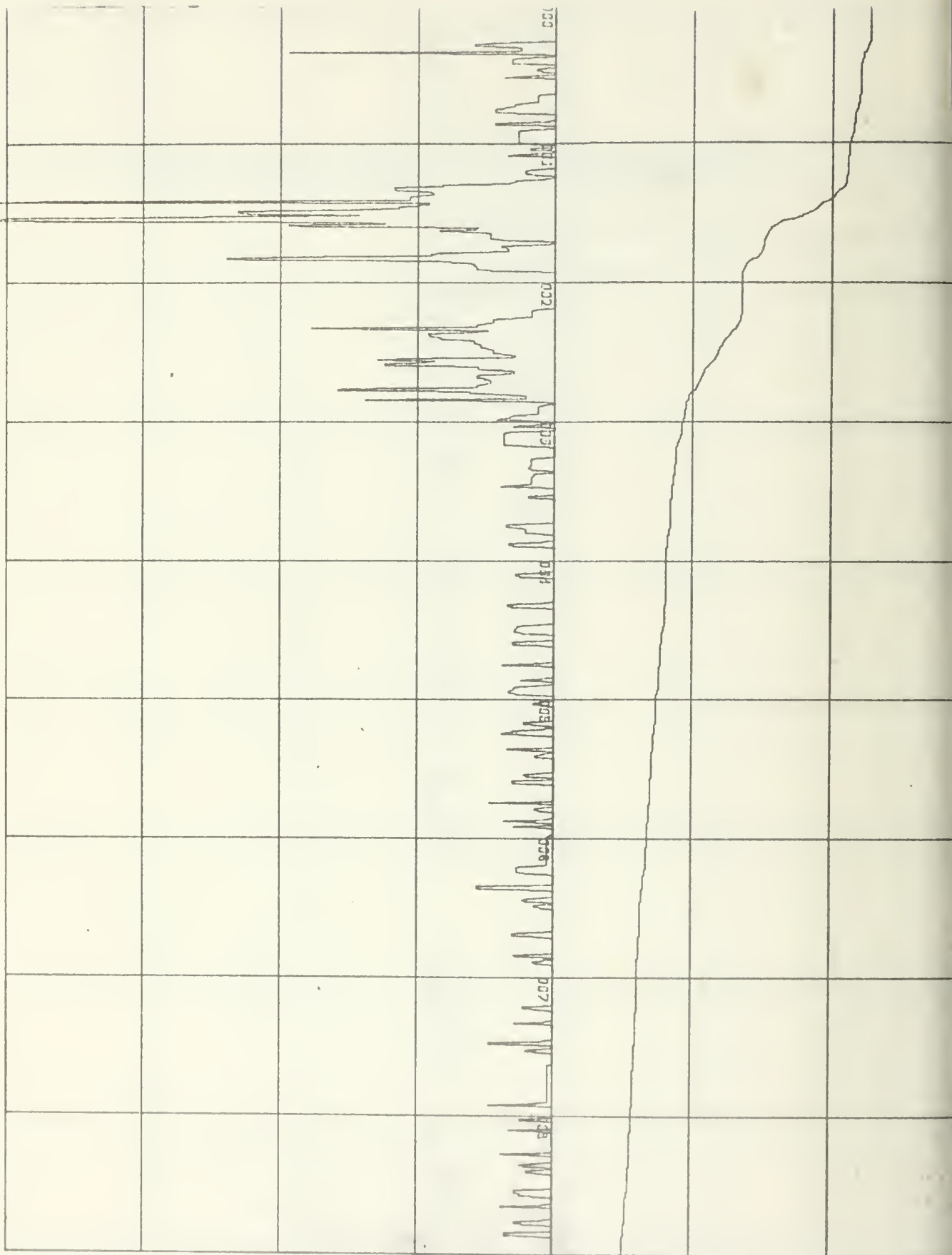
131058

0600

3223N

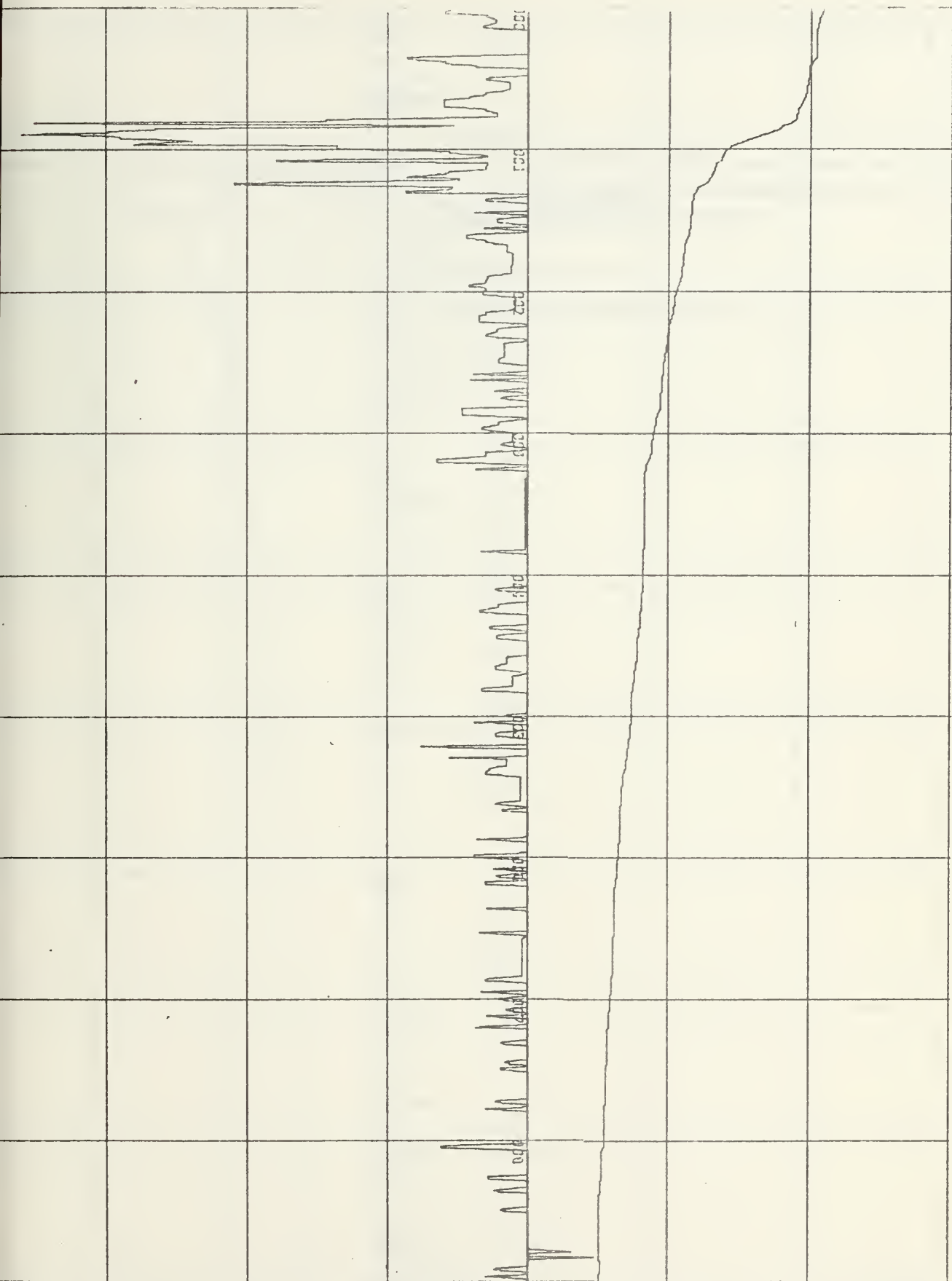
12027W

Figure 58. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 0600Z 13 October 1968.



131068 1200  $Z(x10^2)ft$  3226N 12028W

Figure 59. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 1200Z 13 October 1968



$Z(x10^2)ft$

131068

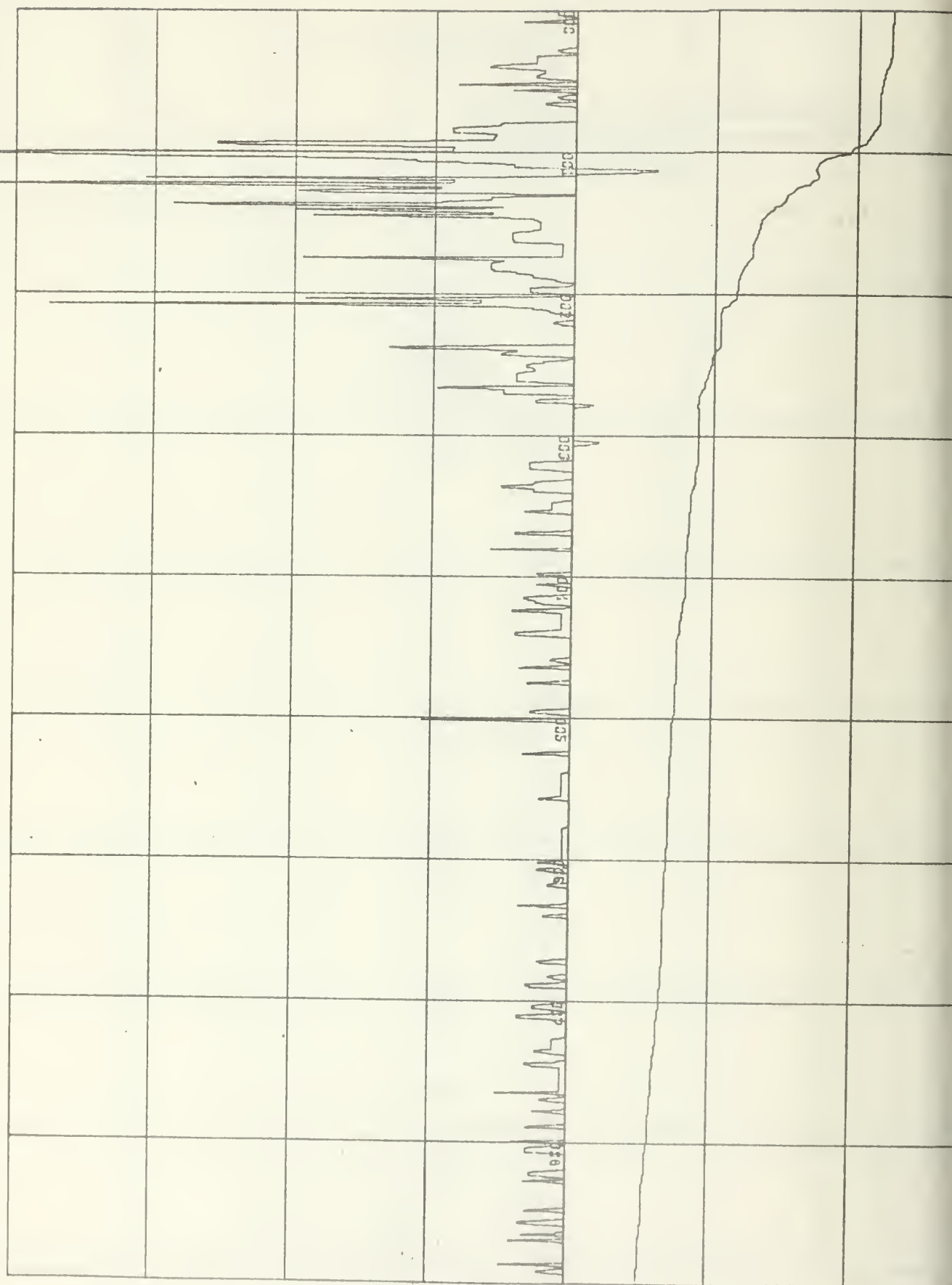
1800

3252N

12047W

Figure 60. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 1800Z 13 October 1968.





141068

0600

3215N

12025W

Figure 61. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 0600Z 14 October 196

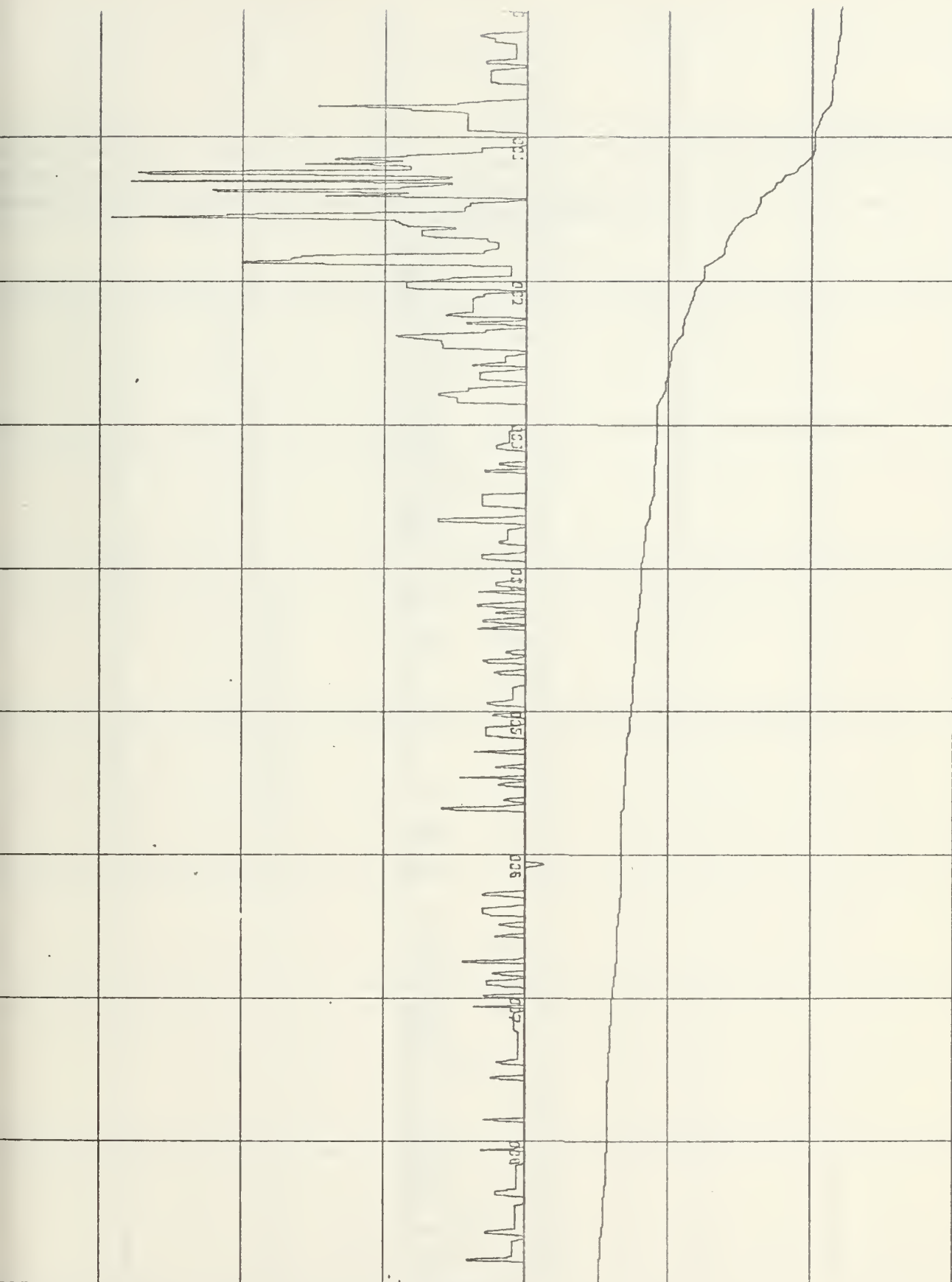
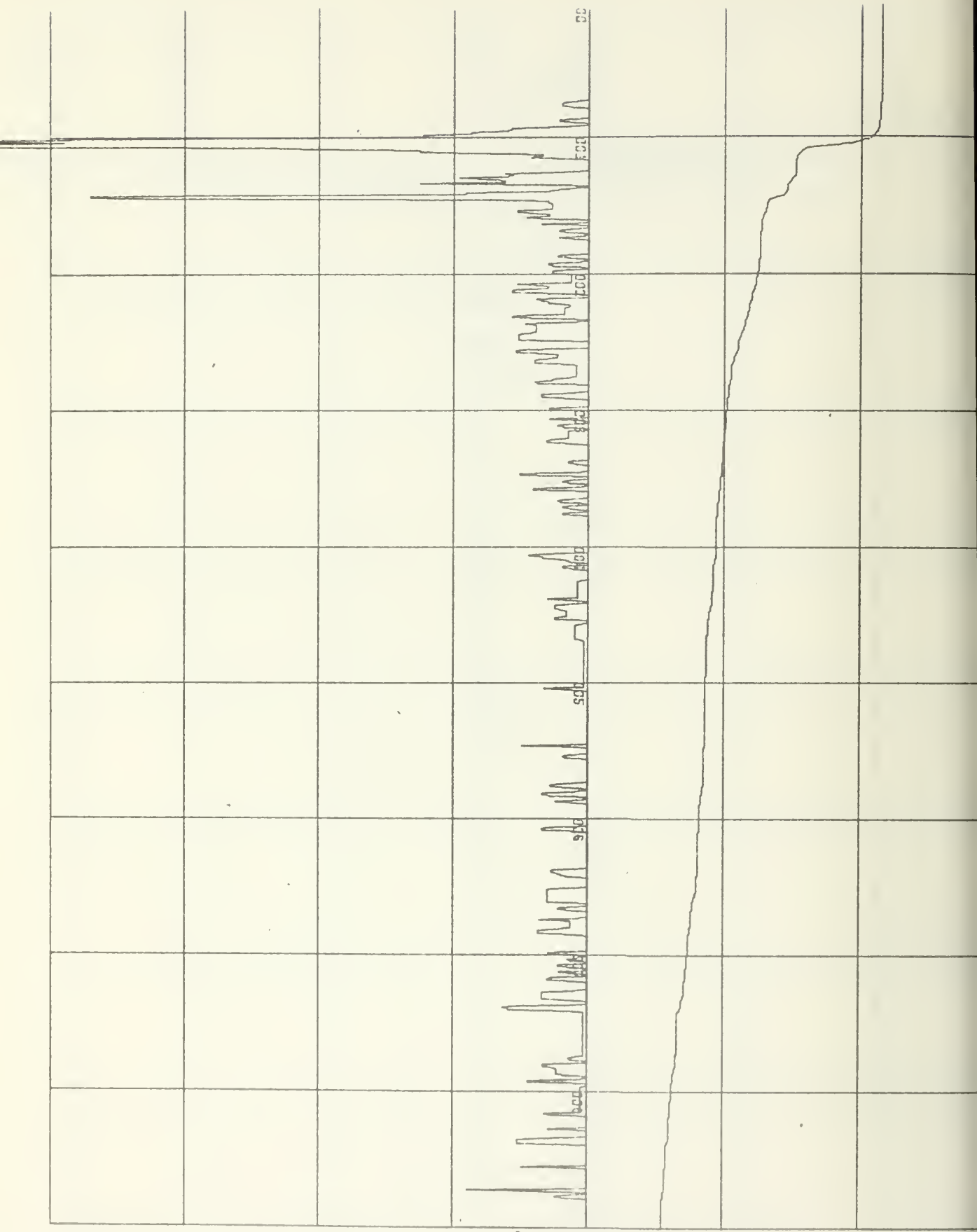
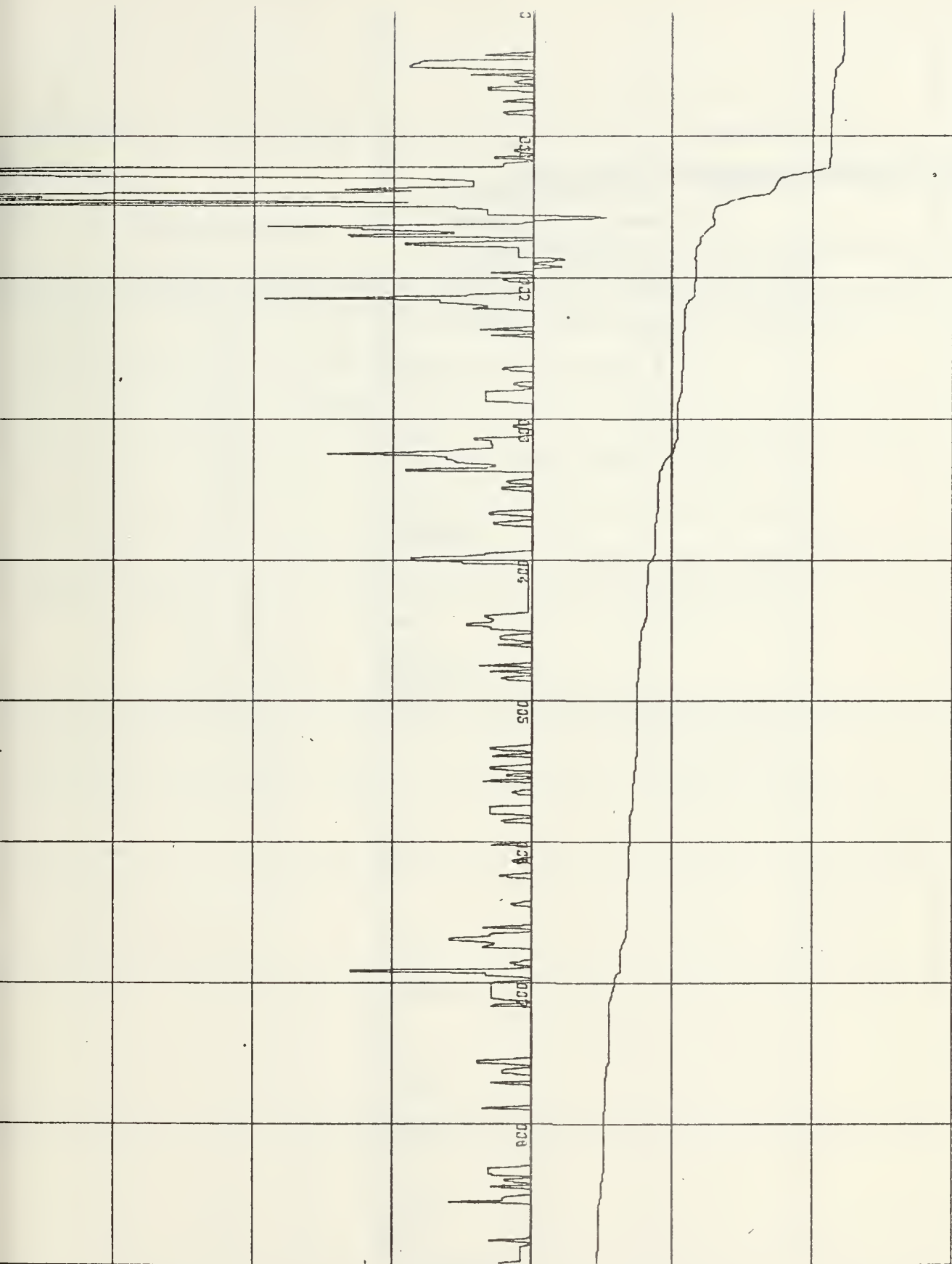


Figure 62. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 1200Z 14 October 1968.



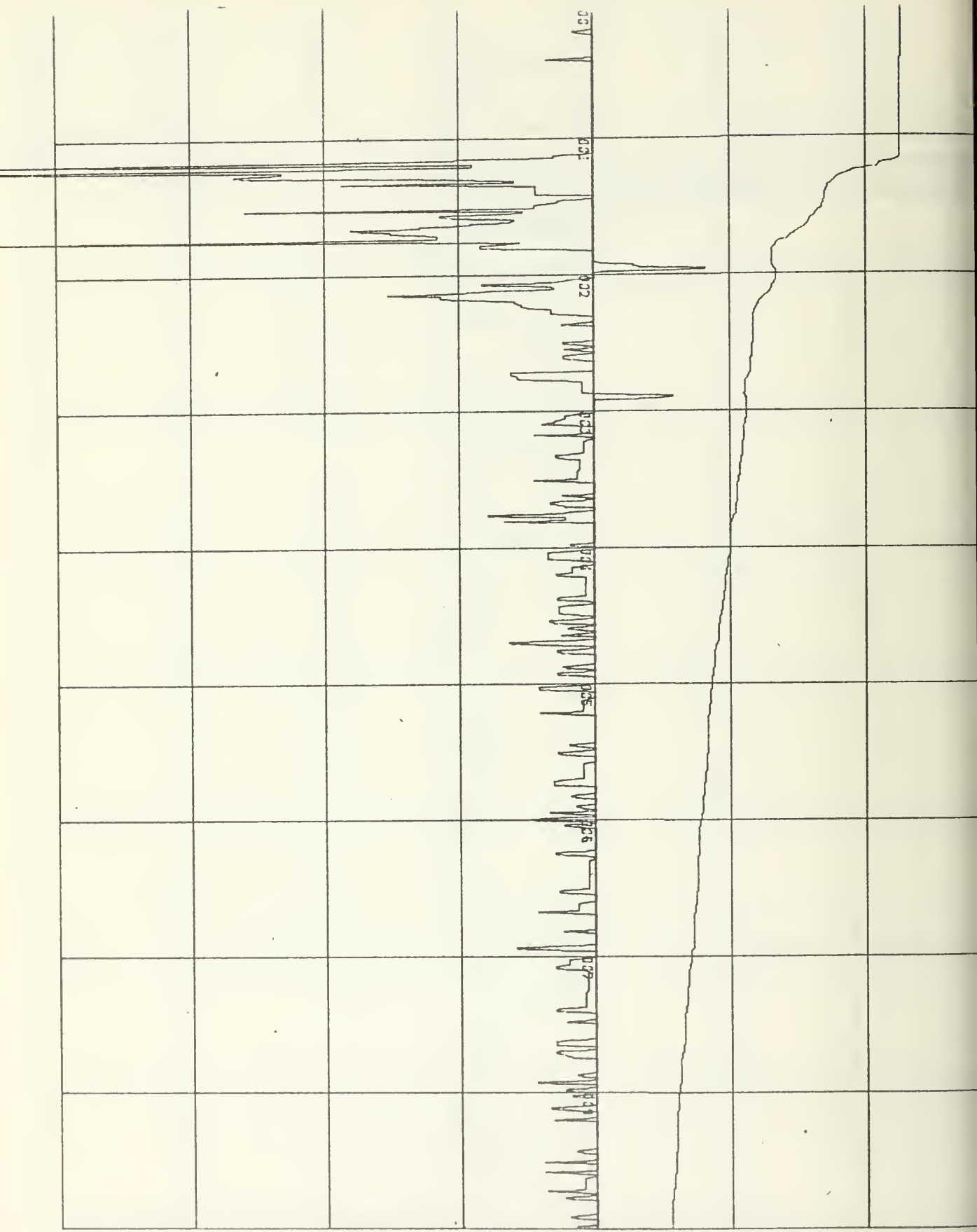
141068 1800  $z(x10^2)ft$  3243N 12045W

Figure 63. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 1800Z 14 October 1968



151068 0000  $Z(x10^2)ft$  3240N 12040W

Figure 64. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 0000Z 15 October 1968.



Z(x10<sup>2</sup>) ft

161068

0600

3214N

12035W

Figure 65. T-Z and G-Z Plots for Eastern North Pacific for 0600Z 16 October 1968

1968 at 120 feet was clear on both the bathythermogram and the T-Z plot. The steps are quite irregular on the T-Z plot but not as irregular as on the G-Z plot.

#### 4. Gulf Stream Region

Thirteen stations, during the period 11-13 August 1969, were analyzed for the Gulf Stream region (Figures 66 through 80). The ship's track crossed the Gulf Stream boundary several times.

##### a. Interior of Gulf Stream

For the interior of the Gulf Stream (Figures 70 and 71), the mixed layer is distinct and a typical seasonal and main thermocline are shown. A "boot" in the 100 foot layer is clearly shown by positive gradient values in several of the figures and the actual XBT traces.

##### b. Frontal Region

Strong gradients are the rule for this region and they are quite distinct in both the T-Z and G-Z plots. The contrast between the frontal and interior regions of the Gulf Stream are quite apparent.



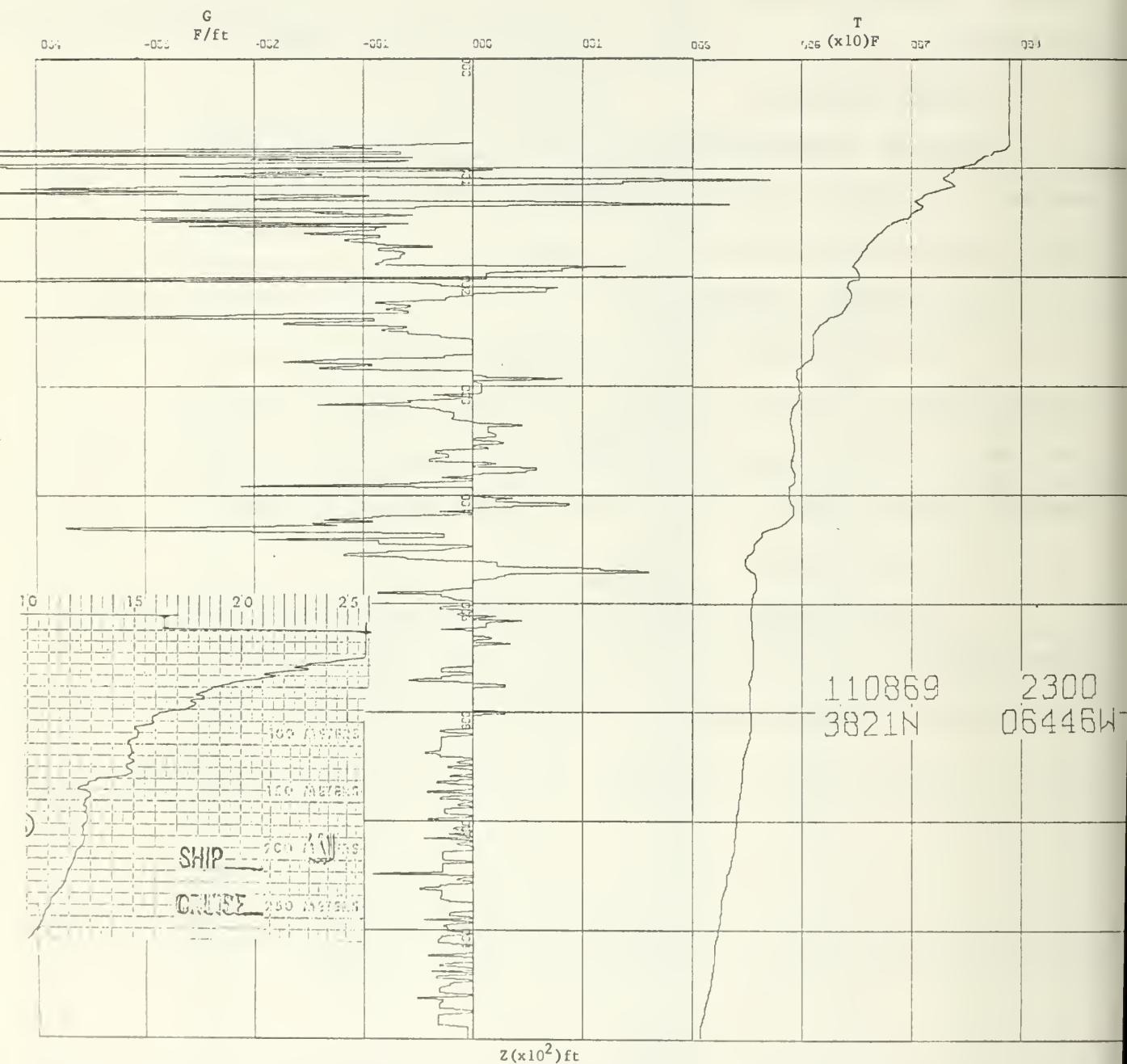


Figure 66. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream. Actual XBT T-Z Trace Inset.

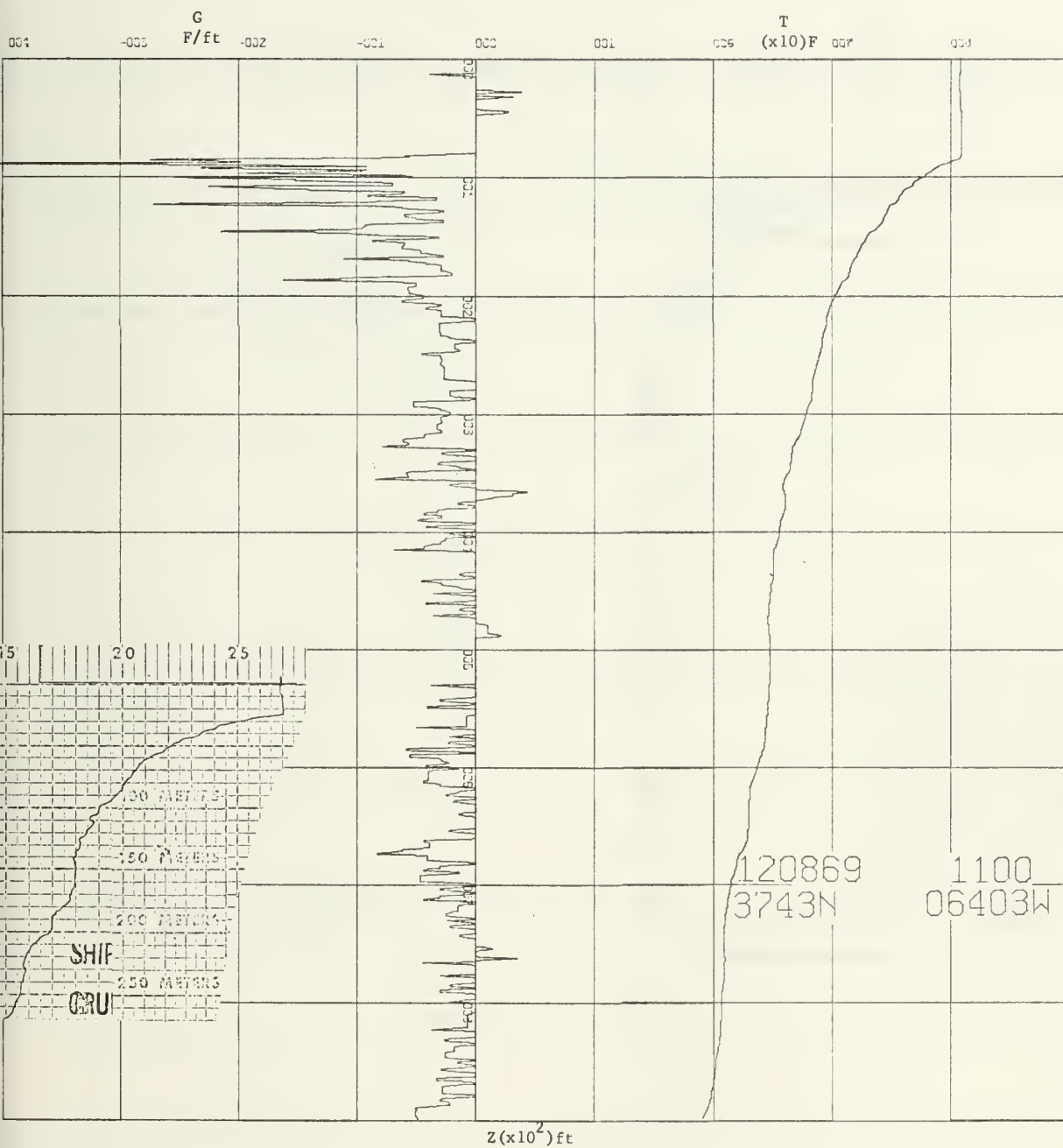


Figure 67. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream. Actual XBT Trace Inset.

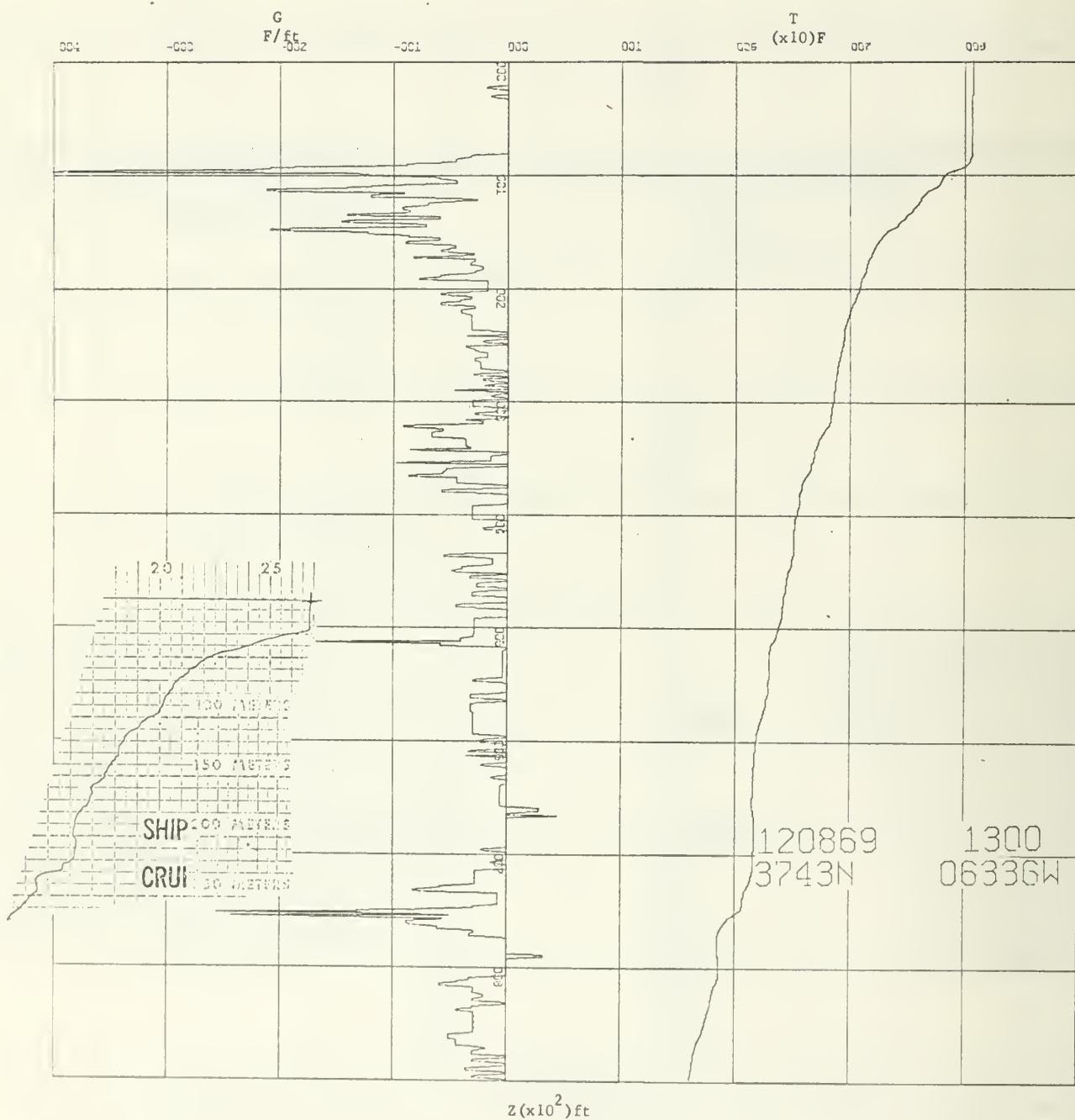


Figure 68. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream. Actual XBT T-Z Trace Inset.

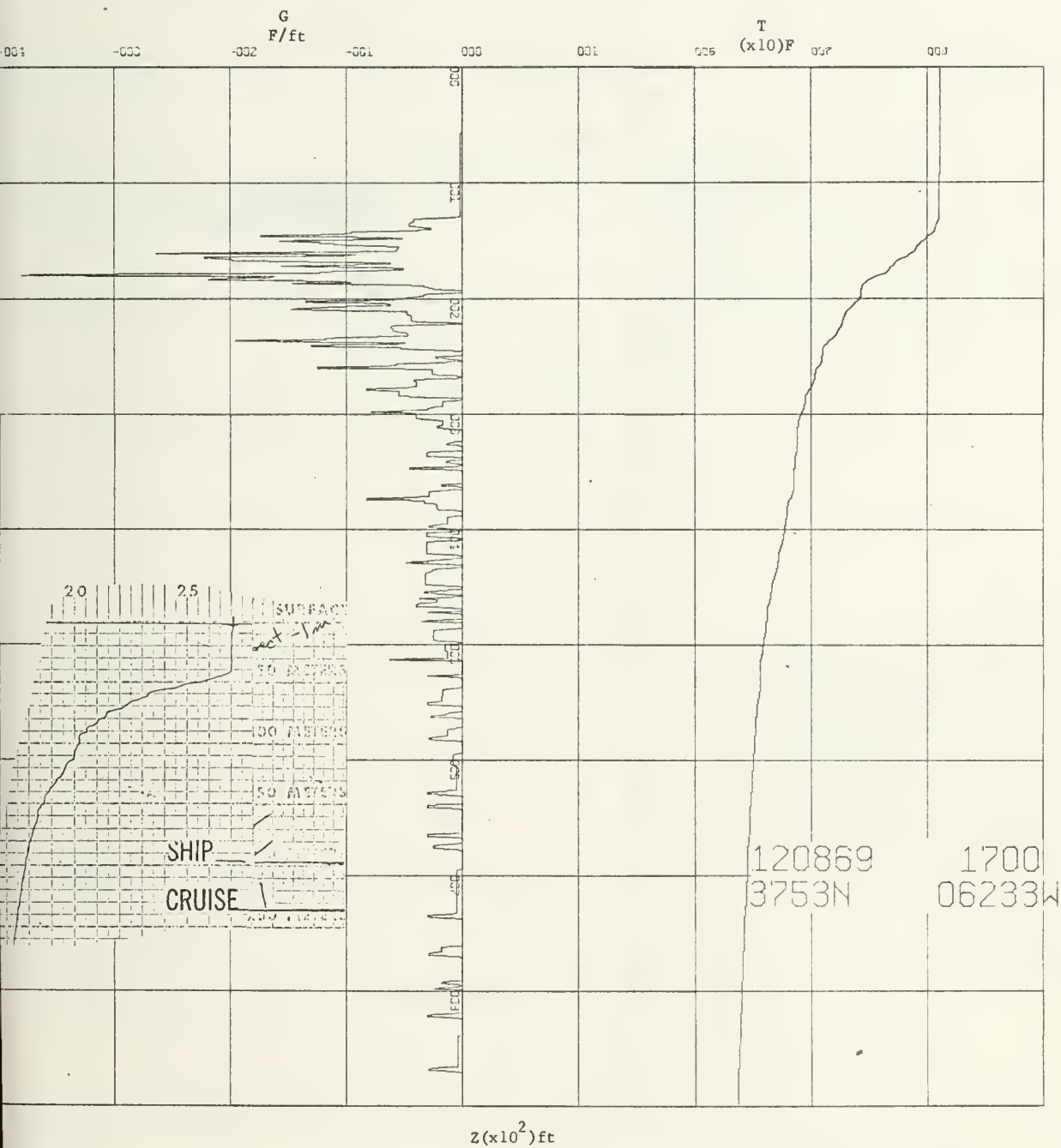


Figure 69. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream. Actual XBT T-Z Trace Inset.

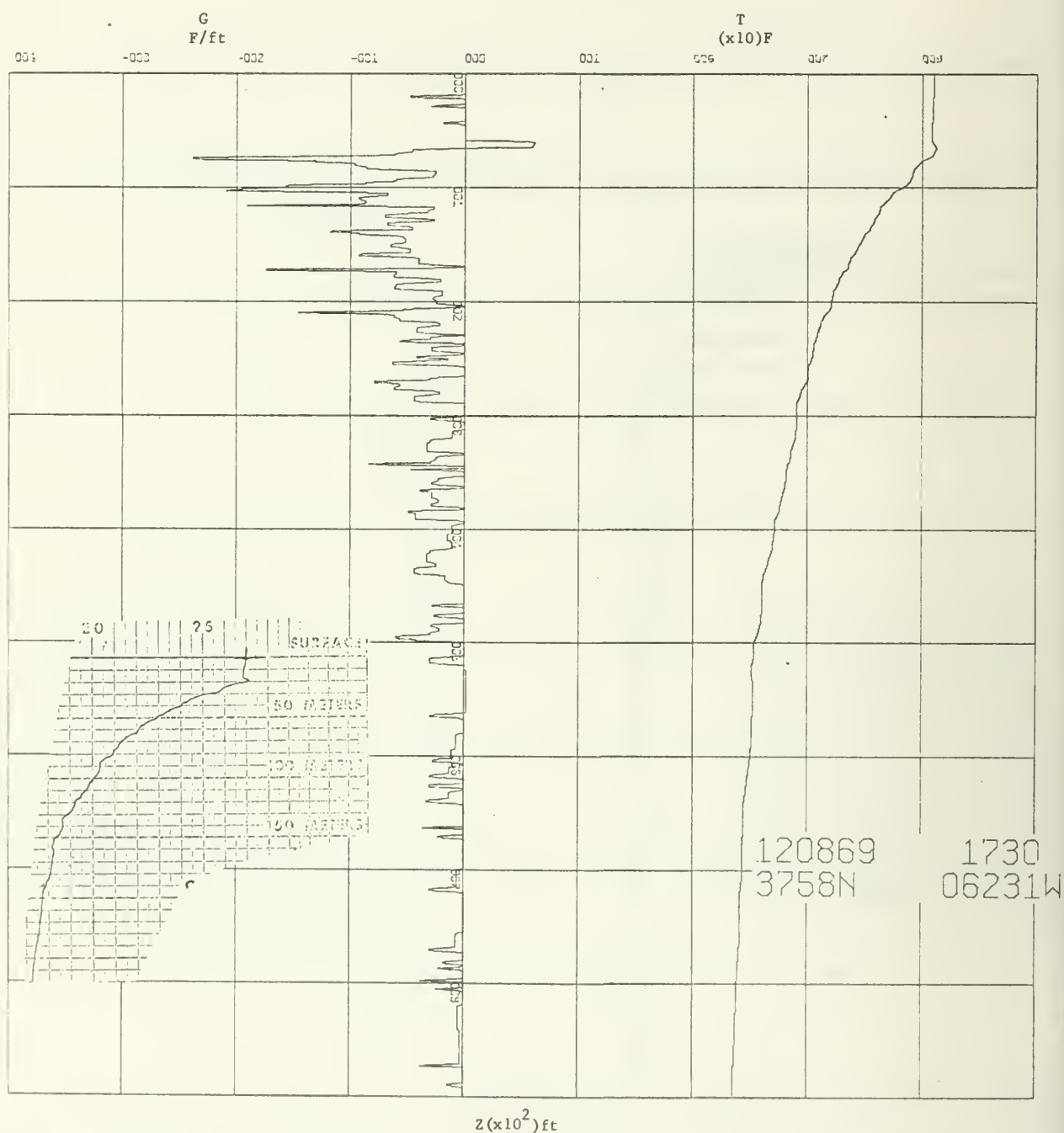


Figure 70. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream. Actual XBT T-Z Trace Inset.

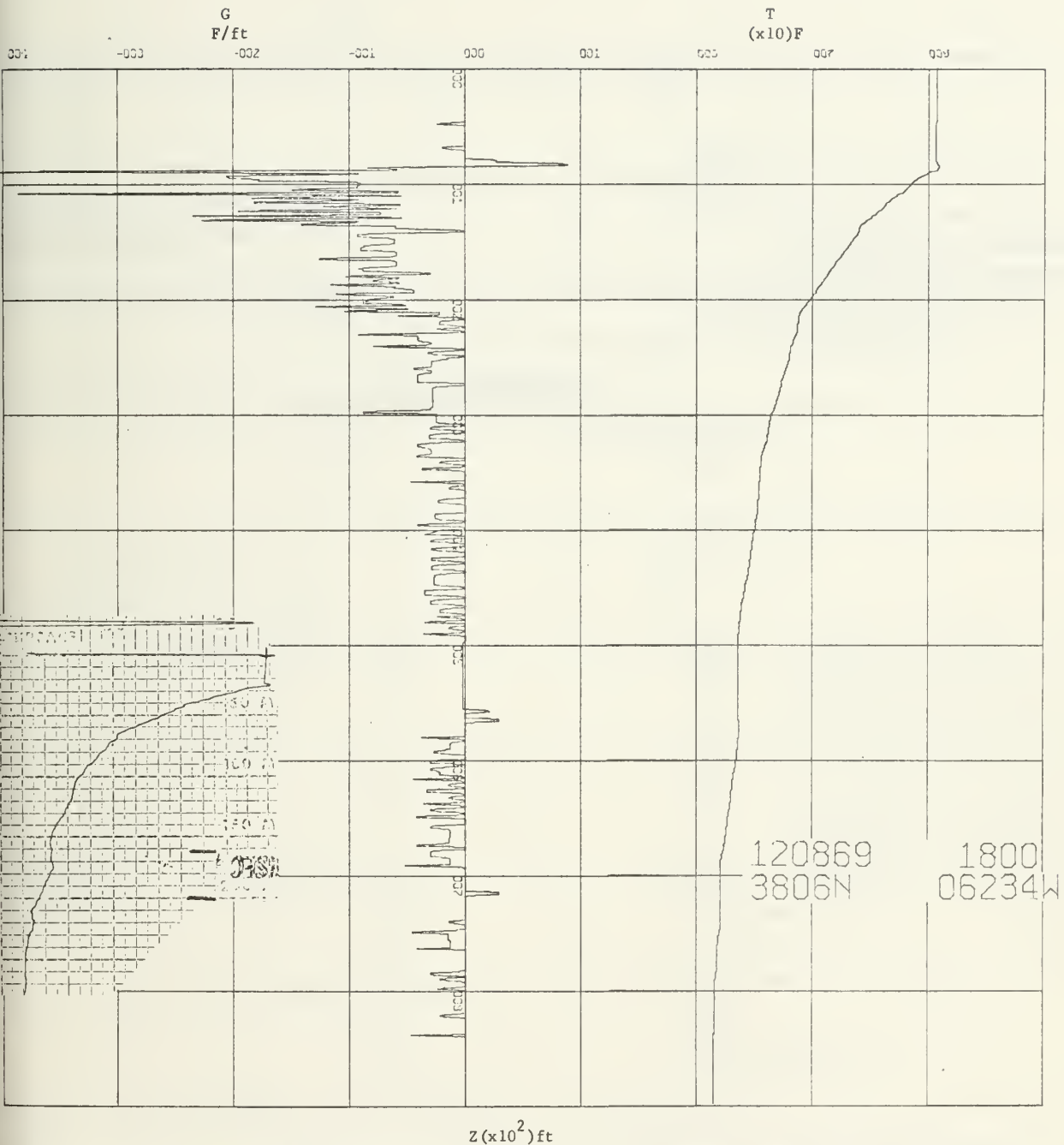


Figure 71. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream. Actual XBT T-Z Trace Inset.



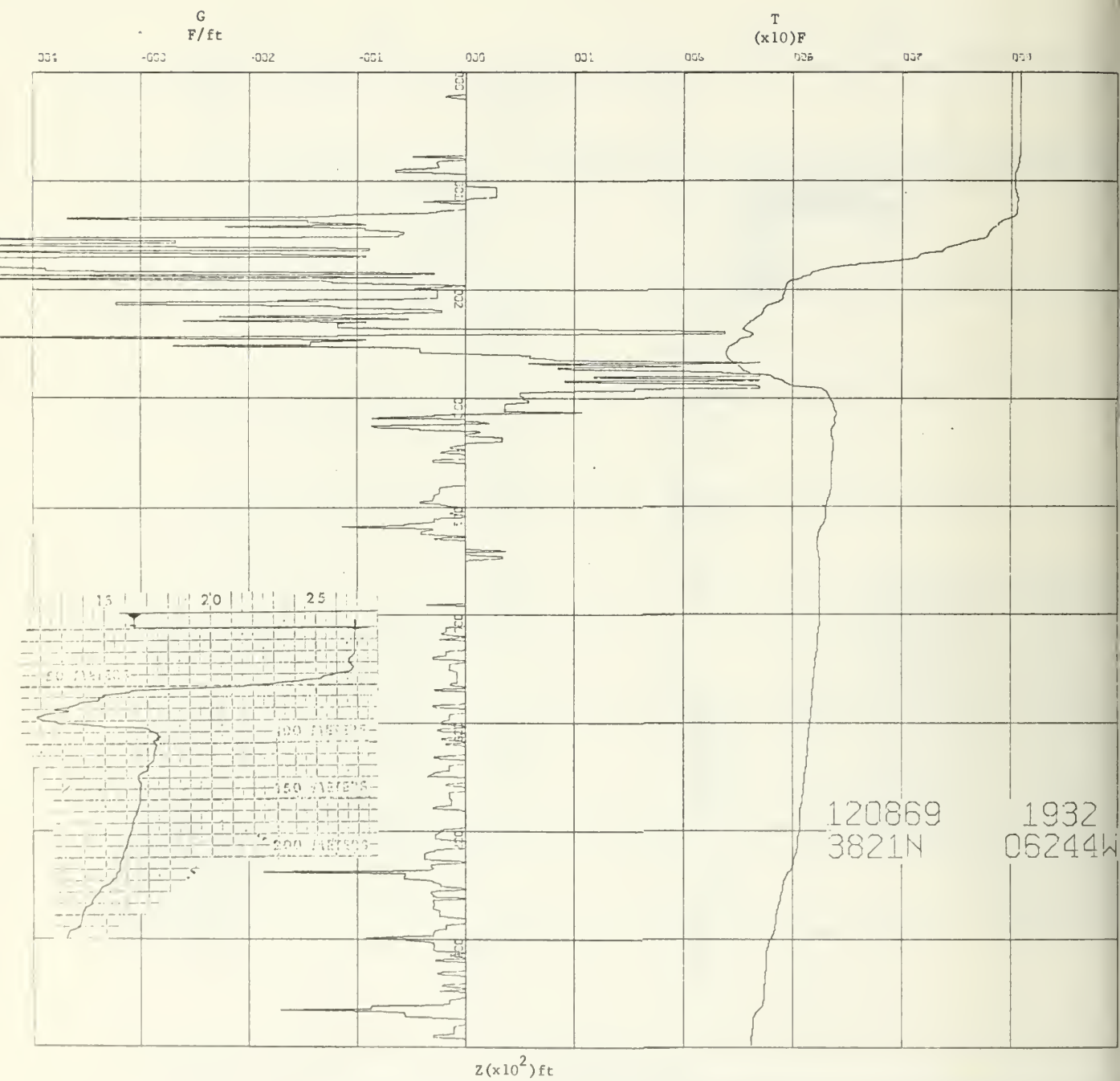
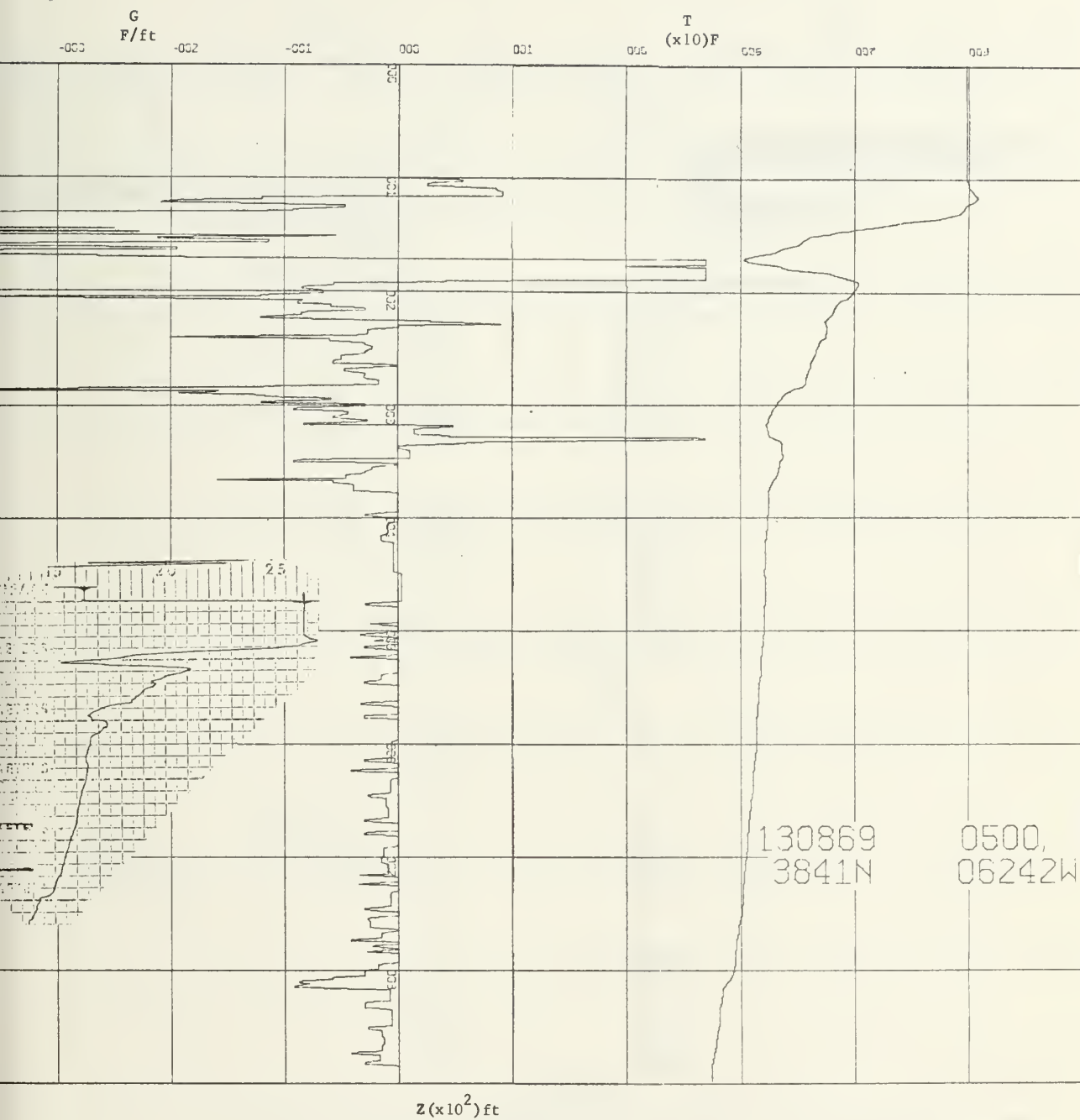


Figure 72. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream. Actual XBT T-Z Trace Inset.



e 73. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream. Actual XBT T-Z Trace Inset.

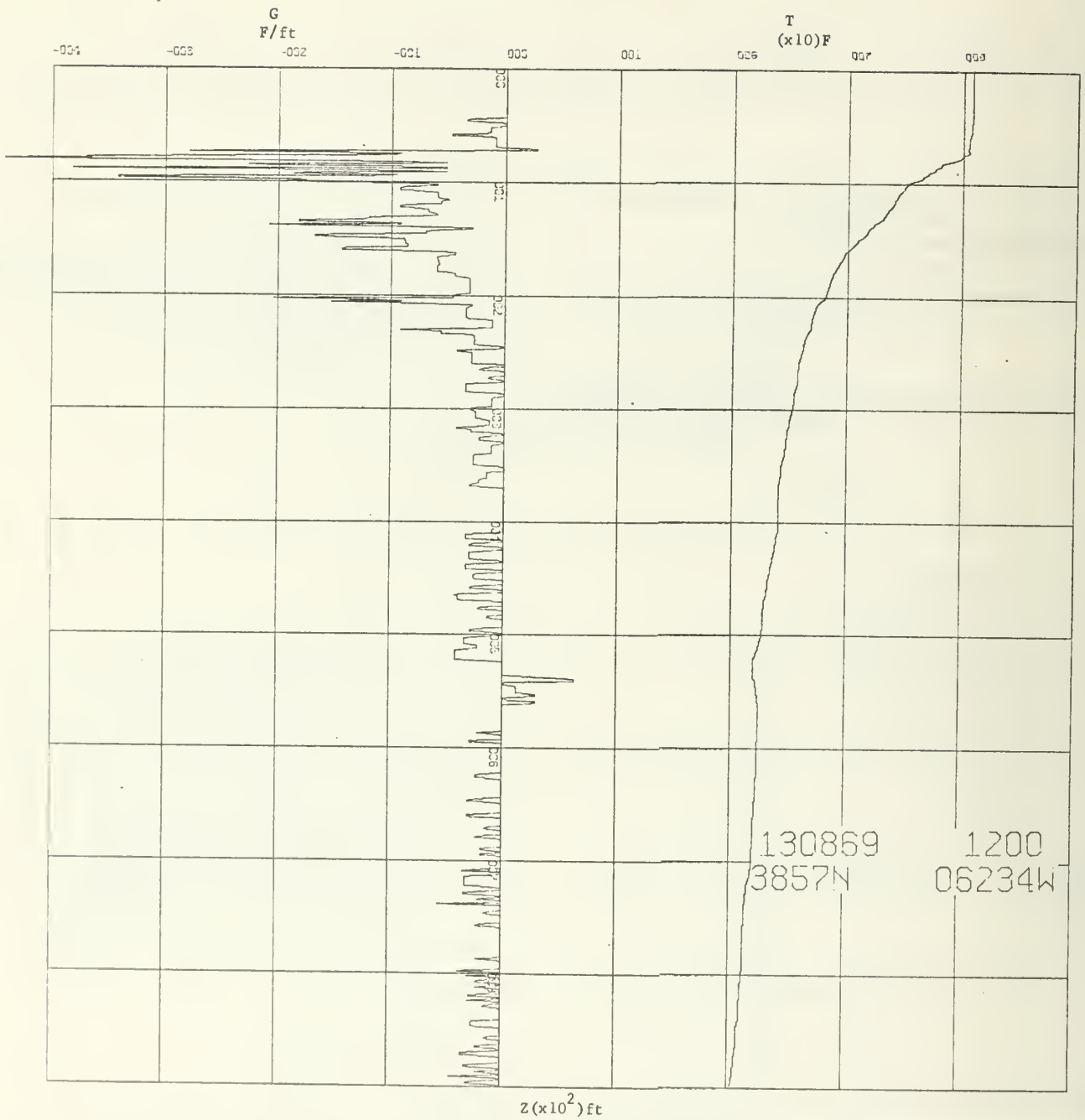


Figure 74. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream.

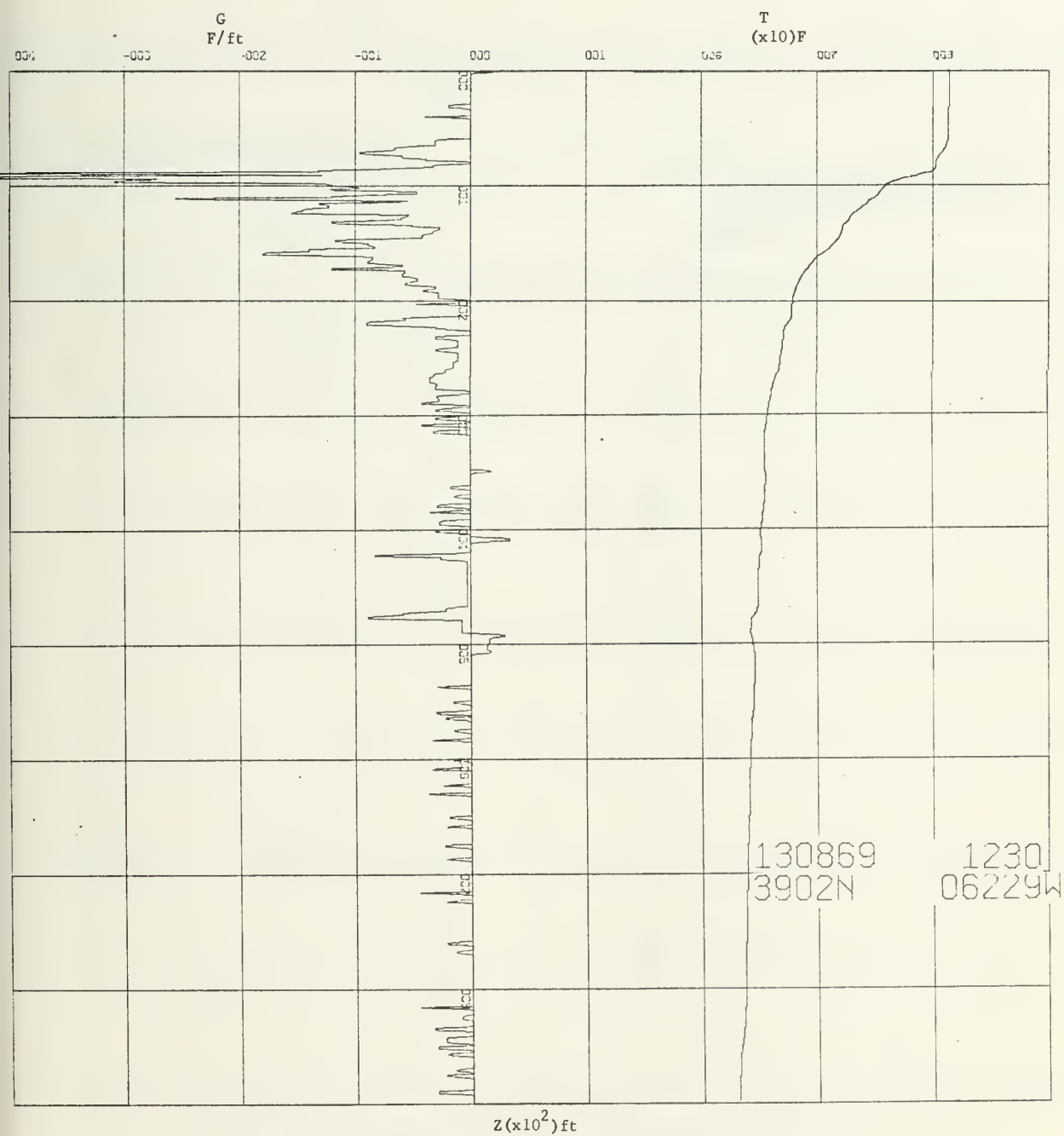


Figure 75. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream.

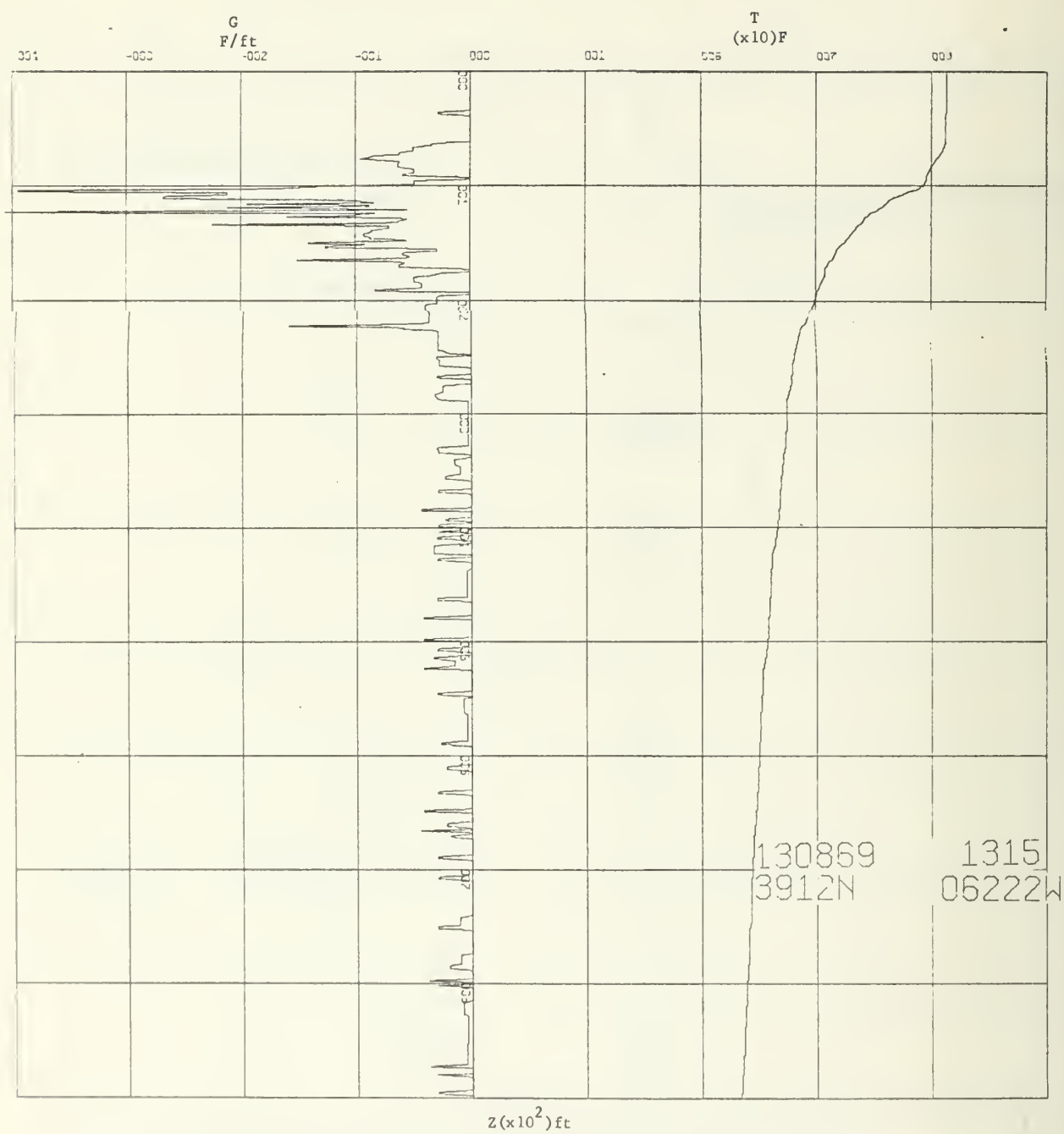


Figure 76. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream.

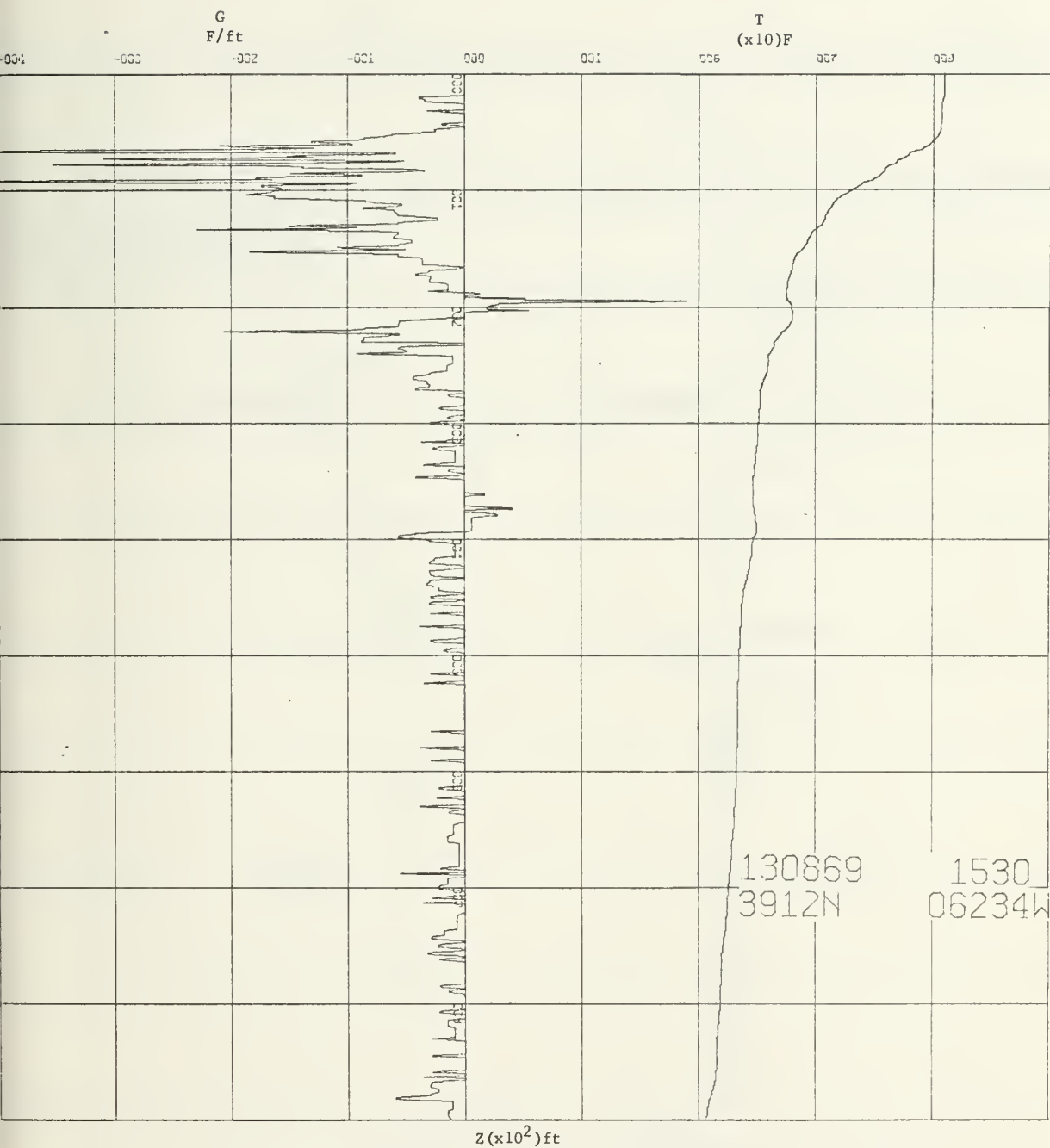


Figure 77. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream.



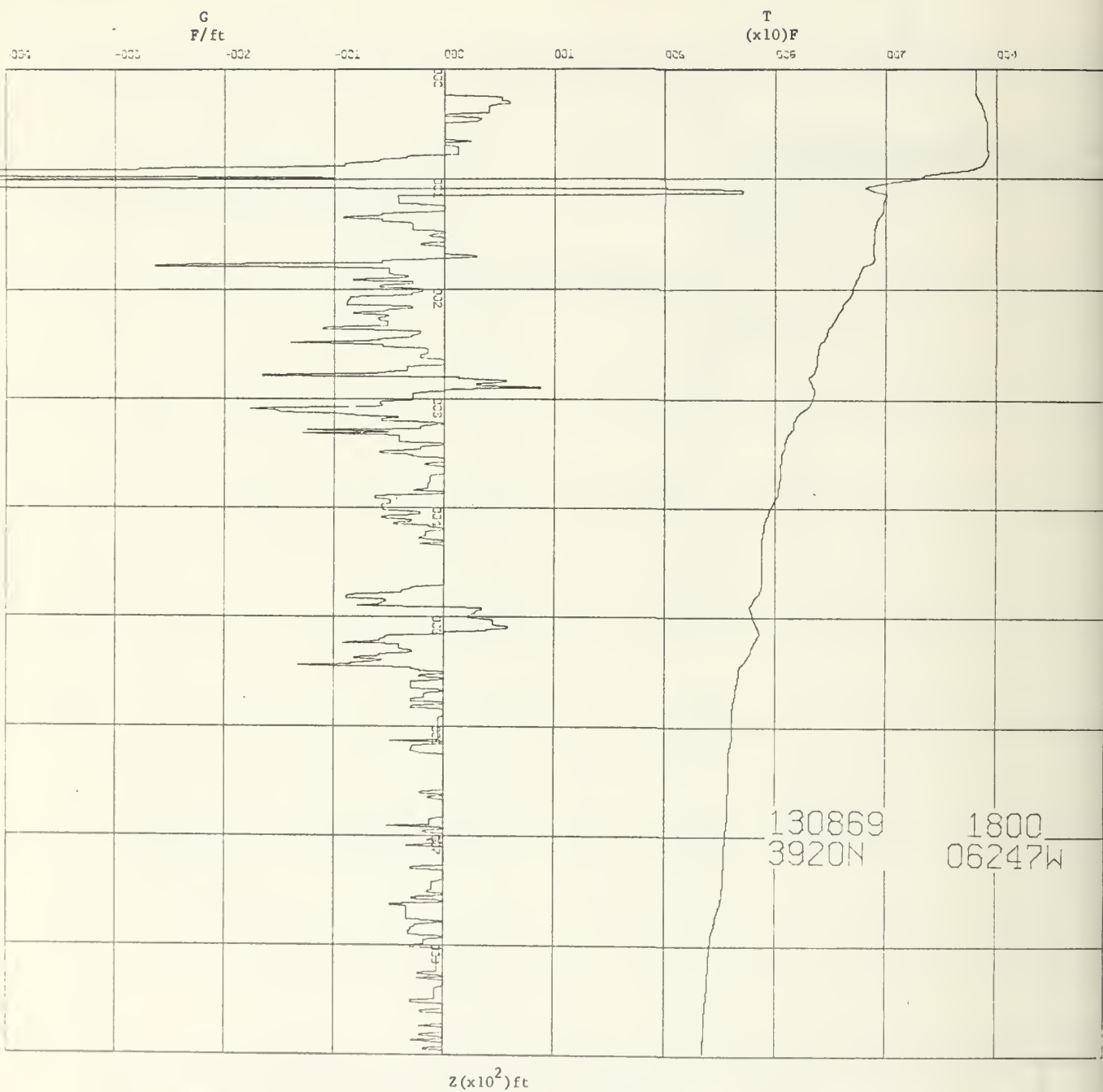


Figure 78- T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream.

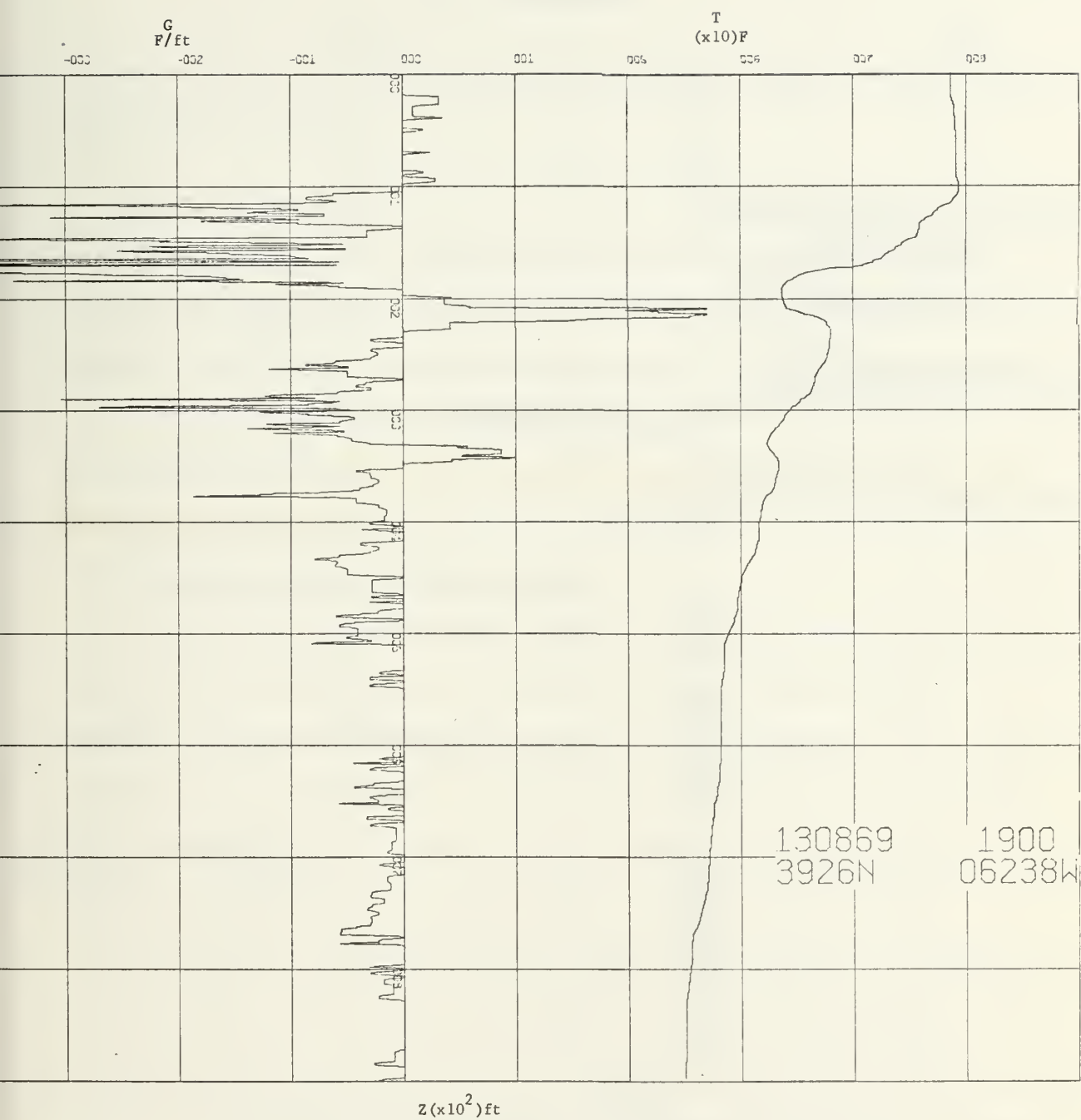


Figure 79. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream.

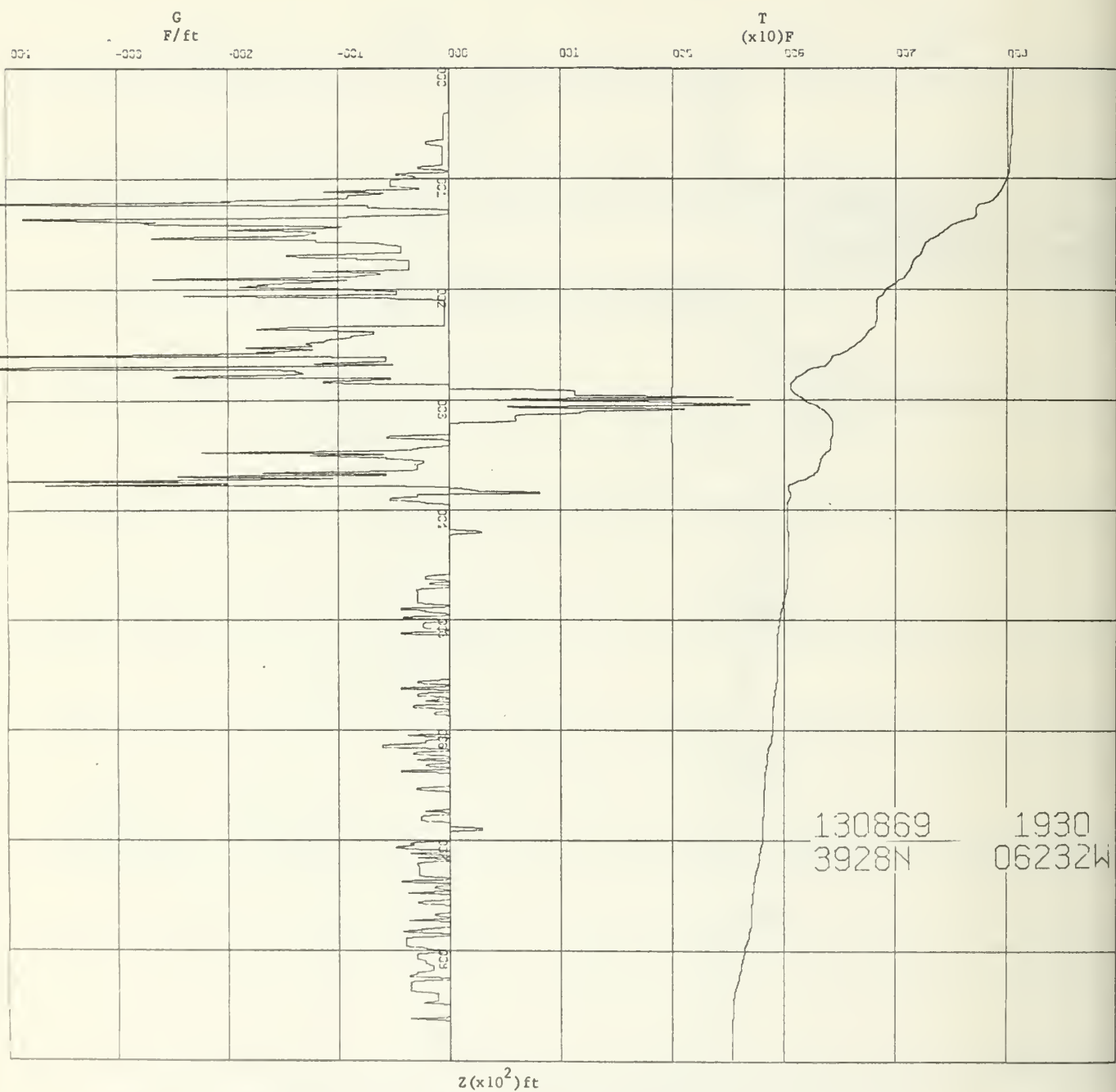


Figure 80. T-Z and G-Z Profile for Transects across Northern Boundary of the Gulf Stream.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

The results give a measure of the microthermal structure obtained with an XBT by the NDM.

### A. PHYSICAL SIGNIFICANCE

Microthermal structure statistics have not been adequately explored. This thesis has proposed an easy method to observe the fine-scale thermal structure. Further, this proposed objective analysis scheme does not use the T-Z values but rather the G-Z values. It is the G-Z distribution which is important. The T-Z can always be reconstructed if one additional parameter, the SST, is known.

#### 1. Internal Waves - Väisälä Frequency

The Brunt-Vaisala frequency is the maximum frequency of oscillation of free internal waves. It may be calculated from the density gradient, or from the parameters which define density gradient. In isohaline water, the NDM gives a direct measure of density (or stability). In such waters it could be used to set an upper limit on the maximum frequency of oscillation of internal waves. Further, a time series study would clearly illustrate the amplitudes likely to be encountered since the sheets indicated on the G-Z diagram are readily identified. A correlation study of G-Z, Brunt-Väisälä versus depth diagrams would be useful.

#### 2. Oceanic Fronts

This difficult region to analyze microscopically could possibly be better explored by using the NDM for the microthermal processes. The NDM explores the continuously changing conditions in frontal regions.

Frontal regions are usually indicated by extremely complex G-Z plots which illustrate the extreme gradients, both positive and negative, encountered. Based on the admittedly small number of cases examined, there appears to be a tendency of the layers to maintain their characteristics and slide by, over or under each other rather than mix.

### 3. Sound Propagation

The effect of microthermal structure on sound propagation require better statistical knowledge of the oceans. The NDM gives emphasis to the strongest gradient regions.

The microthermal effects on index or refraction variations (density fluctuations) must be determined. Using the NDM with salinity variations (from an STD cast) and the NDM with sound velocity variations (from an SVTP cast) taken from the two instruments simultaneously, cross-correlation techniques could shed some light on the unresolved micro-processes in the ocean. In particular, what are the exact physical and theoretical correlations among the salinity, temperature, and sound velocity.

## B. SUGGESTED STUDIES

Possible studies for the future have suggested themselves while developing this thesis.

### 1. Mathematical Models

Various mathematical models attempted could be explored further because each method had some merit. Suggested models are limited by their utility.

#### a. Analysis Methods

The microthermal structure recorded by XBTs can be looked at as a "roughness" factor, the noise level of the water structure. Further

work is required to determine such a factor for practical operational use. This roughness factor should be computed as the XBT trace is being analyzed at FNWC by a program like DIGITBT. This factor could be one number to describe objectively the microthermal structure variations on the G-Z trace.

Variations in the NDM should be used with the variables that have been arbitrarily set. For example, the depth interval of  $\Delta T/\text{ft}$  at one foot should be varied to find the effects a larger or smaller depth interval would have on the G-Z profiles. As the steps become smaller, the exact derivative is approached. Larger steps should smooth the spikes shown in the G-Z figures. In some cases, this smoothed G-Z profile might be described with curve fitting techniques as suggested by Boston [1966] and Grosfils [1968].

MICROXBT's digitizing interval of 0.01 inches should be changed to 0.005 inches and the program modified to use this interval. This would yield more detailed thermal structure than MICROXBT. Obviously, one cannot make the interval finer than the noise level of the sensor or recording instrument.

#### b. Physical Processes

The G-Z profiles from the NDM emphasize the changing physical features which are obscure in the T-Z profiles. By using G-Z profiles for parameters other than temperature, clarity in determining distributions of chemical parameters would be similarly emphasized. Limitations in use of the NDM on other chemical properties should be further investigated.

Water mass identification is possible with G-Z profiles. Additional work is required in this area.



## 2. Experimental Work

A microthermal sheet probe could be designed for investigating the chemical and physical processes inside the sheet and inside the layers. A comparison of actual physical property differences should be made.

A modified expendable temperature gradient (XTG) meter could be designed using two thermistors to obtain the temperature differences in the probe. The standard XBT system equipment already installed could be changed to give analog G-Z profiles to the operational user without any delay.

### a. Time Series

The XTG meter could be used to construct G-Z variability at one location by conducting a time series analysis. This needs to be done in order to obtain a roughness factor, an objective microstructure measuring parameter.

### b. Transect

An XTG meter could be used in transects across various water masses to obtain the definite characteristics for the water masses. The XTG could be used to follow interesting features on the G-Z plots. More important, however, is that the spacial characteristics of microthermal structure could easily be determined.

## 3. Handling of Data

When the microthermal structure roughness factor is determined, this factor should be made an integral part of the records for that XBT trace. This information should be included as part of the ID data.

Aboard Navy ships the AN/UNQ-7 tape recorder could be used to obtain magnetic tape records of the analog XBT or XTG signals. These tapes could be submitted with the traces to FNWC or NPS for further analysis.

#### 4. Naval Applications

Results from microthermal studies show that high frequency sonar performance as influenced by the microstructure receive the greatest microstructure effects. More knowledge of the microstructure is needed before the torpedo and mine-hunting sonar performance could be improved. With a measure of the microstructure, the performance of a sonar system could be predetermined.

Tens of thousands of XBT traces are on file at FNWC. New data are arriving daily. This thesis is an attempt to show how this data can be used both operationally and scientifically. Obviously it represents only a beginning in the way of microstructure analysis and operational utilization.

APPENDIX A

MICROXBT FORTRAN IV PROGRAM FOR CDC 6500

```

* * * * * PROGRAM MICROXBT (INPUT,OUTPUT,TAPE2)
* * * * *
* * * * * PROGRAMMER LCDR P. M. MAGRUDER,USN
* * * * * COMPILED JANUARY 1970
* * * * *
* * * * * MICROXBT IS A SPECIAL PURPOSE PROGRAM DESIGNED TO
* * * * * INTERPRET THE OUTPUT OF A CALMA COMPANY 303 OR 480 FLATBED
* * * * * DIGITIZER USED TO TRACE EXPENDABLE BATHYTHERMOGRAPH ANALOG
* * * * * RECORDS ACCORDING TO A SPECIFIC TECHNIQUE.
* * * * *
* * * * * THE OUTPUT FROM THIS PROGRAM WILL BE USED IN ANOTHER
* * * * * PROGRAM WRITTEN FOR THE IBM/360 AT NPS FOR MICROTHERMAL
* * * * * ANALYSIS. EXTENSIVE USAGE OF THE FNCW PROGRAM DIGITBT
* * * * * WRITTEN BY LT N.L.PERKINS, USN, 15 JANUARY 1969, HAS MADE
* * * * * THIS MICROTHERMAL ANALYSIS POSSIBLE.
* * * * *
* * * * * INPUT TO THE PROGRAM IS BY HOLLERITH CARDS CONTAINING DEPTH
* * * * * AND TEMPERATURE CONSTANTS AND BY MAGNETIC TAPE WRITTEN IN
* * * * * EXTERNAL BCD CHARACTERS AT 556 BPI, EVEN PARITY, IN VARIABLE
* * * * * LENGTH RECORDS.
* * * * *
* * * * * DIMENSION IC(1650),IM(5000),IN(5000),ID(37),IF(40),IG(40),II(10)
* * * * * DIMENSION IIS(4500),I1(9),I2(9),I3(9),AO(6000)
* * * * * EQUIVALENCE(AO,IP)
* * * * * COMMON JD,IT(10),IH(40), IP(6000),ITAPE1(9),IK(37)
* * * * * II(1)=1R1 $ II(2)=1R2 $ II(3)=1R3 $ II(4)=1R4 $ II(5)=1R5
* * * * * II(6)=1R6 $ II(7)=1R7 $ II(8)=1R8 $ II(9)=1R9 $ II(10)=1R0
* * * * * IK(1)=55B $ IK(2)=50B $ IK(3)=23B $ IK(4)=24B $ IK(5)=25B
* * * * * IK(6)=26B $ IK(7)=27B $ IK(8)=30B $ IK(9)=31B $ IK(10)=32B
* * * * * IK(11)=62B $ IK(12)=56B $ IK(13)=51B $ IK(14)=65B $ IK(15)=60B
* * * * * IK(16)=67B $ IK(17)=73B $ MASK=2RD2 $ IS=1
* * * * * ITAPE1(2)=5LTAPE1.0R.1
* * * * * ICA=ICB=ICD=ICF=ICG=ICP=ICR=ICS=ICT=0
* * * * * 1016 FORMAT(R2,R1,X,R3,R1,X,R2,R4,4X,4R4,20X,R4,9X,R4,4R2)
* * * * * 1022 FORMAT(X,R4,X,6R1,X,4R1,X,5R1,X,6R1)

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1034 FORMAT(10(X,I8))
1036 FORMAT(10(X,I7))
**** PAGE EJECT PRINTER.
      PRINT 1000
1000 FORMAT(1H1)
**** REWIND OUTPUT TAPE TO LOAD POINT.
**** READ CONSTANTS. READS PUNCHED CARDS CONTAINING DEPTH AND
**** TEMPERATURE CONSTANTS. A MAXIMUM OF 25 SETS OF CONSTANTS
**** (75 CARDS) CAN BE READ.
      M=0
1 READ 1001, (IC(J+M),J=1,22)
1001 FORMAT(R1,I2,I1,19I4)
      IF(IC(M+1).NE.1) GO TO 2
1002 READ 1002, (IC(J+M),J=23,44)
      FORMAT(R1,I2,19I4,R1)
      IF(IC(M+23).NE.2) GO TO 2
1003 READ 1003, (IC(J+M),J=45,66)
      FORMAT(R1,2I2,18I4,R3)
      IF(IC(M+2).NE.IC(M+24).OR.IC(M+24).NE.IC(M+46)) GO TO 2
      IF(IC(M+45).EQ.5) GO TO 51
      IF(IC(M+45).NE.3) GO TO 2
      IF(M.GE.1584) GO TO 2
      M=M+66
      GO TO 1
2 STOP 1
**** READ IDENTIFICATION RECORD. A MESSAGE TO THE PRINTER IS
**** TRANSMITTED UPON THE DETECTION OF A FORMAT ERROR NOT SIGNIFIED
**** BY A DELETE RECORD CODE.
51 GO TO 52
52 DO 53 J=1,37
53 ID(J)=0
54 DO 55 J=1,5
55 IM(J)=0
      CALL FLIO(4LR8CD,ITAPE1,IM,5)
      GO TO (52,57,501,56,501,52)ITAPE1
56 PRINT 1004

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1004 FORMAT(/,25H PARITY IN READING IDENT.)
      ICP=ICP+1
      GO TO 54
57  IT(1)=LBYT(55,6,IM(1))
      IF(IT(1).NE.738) GO TO 54
      DO 58 J=1,5
      DECODE(10,1005,IM(J)) (IT(K),K=1,10)
1005  FORMAT(10R1)
      DO 58 K=1,10
      IF(IT(K).EQ.38) GO TO 54
58  CONTINUE
      DECODE(41,1006,IM(1)) (IP(J),J=1,27)
1006  FORMAT(6X,6R1,2(X,4R1),2X,5R1,2X,2(3R1,X),2R1)
      DO 60 J=1,27
      DO 59 K=1,10
      IF((IP(J).AND..NOT.II(K)).OR.(II(K).AND..NOT.IP(J))) 59,60
59  CONTINUE
      PRINT 1007
1007  FORMAT(1H0)
      PRINT 1008, (IM(J),J=1,5)
1008  FORMAT(X,R9,3R10,L1)
      PRINT 1009
1009  FORMAT(/,39H FORMAT ERROR IN IDENTIFICATION RECORD.)
      ICF=ICF+1
      GO TO 54
60  CONTINUE
      DECODE(41,1010,IM(1)) (ID(J),J=1,15)
1010  FORMAT(X,R4,X,3I2,2(X,2I2),R1,X,I3,I2,R1,2(X,I3),X,I2)
      DECODE(30,1011,IM(1)) (ID(J),J=16,37)
      PRINT 1007
      PRINT 1011, ID(1), ID(9), (IP(J),J=1,14), ID(9), (IP(J),J=15,19), ID(12),
1      (IP(J),J=20,27)
      WRITE(2,1041)
1041  FORMAT(4HID )
1011  FORMAT(X,R4,X,6R1,X,4R1,X,5R1,X,6R1,X,2(3R1,X),2R1)
      WRITE(2,1150) ID(1), (IP(J),J=1,14), ID(9), (IP(J),J=15,19), ID(12),

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A126  
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A043



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1(IP(J),J=20,27)
1150 FORMAT(4X,R4,4X,6R1,4X,4R1,4X,5R1,4X,6R1,4X,2(3R1,X),2X,2R1)
      JD=ID(1)
      CALL DISBCD
      ***** READ TWO ASSOCIATED TRACE RECORDS.
      CALL TRACEY(IE,IR,IM,ICA,ICS,ICR)
      IF(IR.NE.0) GO TO 52
      IF(IE.NE.0) GO TO 501
      CALL TRACEY(IE,IR,IN,ICA,ICS,ICR)
      IF(IR.NE.0) GO TO 52
      IF(IE.NE.0) GO TO 501
      ***** INSURE NEXT RECORD IS IDENTIFICATION DATA.
      101 CALL FLIO(4LRBCD,ITAPE1,IP,1)
      GO TO (101,102,103,101,103,101)ITAPE1
      102 IT(1)=LBYT(55,6,IP(1))
      IF(IT(1).EQ.73B) GO TO 103
      PRINT 1012
      1012 FORMAT(/,33H IMPROPER ARRANGEMENT OF RECORDS.)
      ICA=ICA+1
      GO TO 52
      103 CALL FLIO(4LBKSP,ITAPE1)
      ***** SELECT PROPER SET OF DEPTH AND TEMPERATURE CONSTANTS NEEDED TO
      ***** CONVERT INCREMENTAL VALUES FOR SIGNIFICANT LEVELS. DEPTH VALUES
      ***** ARE SCALED TO THE TENTH TIMES TEN. TEMPERATURE VALUES ARE SCALED
      ***** TO THE THOUSANDTH TIMES ONE THOUSAND. INCREMENTAL VALUES ARE
      ***** SCALED TO THE HUNDREDTH TIMES ONE HUNDRED.
      DO 151 J=1,40
      151 IF(J)=IG(J)=IH(J)=0
      DO 152 J=2,1586,66
      IF(IC(J).EQ.ID(14)) GO TO 154
      IF(IC(J).EQ.0) GO TO 153
      152 CONTINUE
      153 PRINT 1013
      1013 FORMAT(/,43H CONSTANTS MISSING OR GRID NUMBER IN ERROR.)
      ICG=ICG+1
      GO TO 52

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154 M=J+3 $ I=3 $ L=1 $ IF(2)=IC(J+2), L=L+1 $
    DO 155 K=M,N
    IF(IC(K).EQ.0) GO TO 156
    IF(I)=IC(K)*100 $ IF(I+1)=IC(J+2)*10+IC(J+1)*L*1000
    I=I+2 $ L=L+1
155 CONTINUE
    IF(40)=IC(K)*100
    GO TO 157
156 IF(40)=IC(K-1)*100
157 IG(2)=IF(2) $ L=1 $ I=3 $ M=J+23 $ N=M+18
    DO 158 K=M,N
    IF(IC(K).EQ.0) GO TO 160
    IG(I)=-IC(K)*100 $ IG(I+1)=IC(J+2)*10-IC(J+1)*L*1000
    I=I+2 $ L=L+1
158 CONTINUE
    IG(40)=-IC(K)*100
    GO TO 161
160 IG(40)=-IC(K-1)*100
161 L=1 $ I=3 $ M=J+46 $ N=M+17
    DO 162 K=M,N
    IF(IC(K).EQ.0) GO TO 163
    IH(I)=IC(K)*100 $ IH(I+1)=IC(J+45)*L*100
    I=I+2 $ L=L+1
162 CONTINUE
163 JJ=ID(15)*10/IC(J+45) $ IH(40)=IC(J+JJ+45)*100
    IF(SENSE SWITCH 2) 164,165
164 PRINT 1034, (IF(J),J=1,40), (IG(J),J=1,40), (IH(J),J=1,40)

**** EXTRACT X AND Y SUMMATIONS FROM TRACE RECORDS.
165 CALL TRACEX(IM)
    CALL TRACEX(IN)
**** COMPARE TRACE RECORDS AND MERGE IF COMPATIBLE. TRACES ARE MERGED
**** IF FOUND TO BE WITHIN THREE INCREMENTS OF EACH OTHER.
167 DO 201 J=1,5000
201 IP(J)=0
    JE=KE=0

```

DO 211 J=1,4999,2		A200
IF(J.EQ.1) GO TO 202		A201
IF(IM(J).EQ.IH(40).OR.IN(J).EQ.IH(40)) GO TO 212		A202
IF((IM(J).EQ.0.AND.IM(J+1).EQ.0).OR.(IN(J).EQ.0.AND.IN(J+1).EQ.0))		A203
1 GO TO 215		A204
202 IF(IM(J)-IN(J)) 203,204,205		A205
203 L=-(IM(J)-IN(J))		A206
GO TO 206		A207
204 L=0		A208
GO TO 206		A209
205 L=IM(J)-IN(J)		A210
206 IF(IM(J+1)-IN(J+1)) 207,208,209		A211
207 K=-(IM(J+1)-IN(J+1))		A212
GO TO 210		A213
208 K=0		A214
GO TO 210		A215
209 K=IM(J+1)-IN(J+1)		A216
210 IP(J)=(IM(J)+IN(J))/2		
IP(J+1)=(IM(J+1)+IN(J+1))/2		
IF(L.GT.JE)JE=L		A218
IF(K.GT.KE)KE=K		A219
*****COMPATABILITY TEST FOR 0.0350 INCH DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TRACES		
2101 IF(L.GT.350.OR.K.GT.350) GO TO 213		
211 CONTINUE		
GO TO 214		A221
212 IP(J)=IH(40) \$ IP(J+1)=(IM(J+1)+IN(J+1))/2 \$ J=J+2		A222
GO TO 215		A223
213 JE=JE/100 \$ KE=KE/100		A224
PRINT 1014, JE,KE		A225
1014 FORMAT(/,28H DEVIATION TEST FAILED AT X=,I8,4H, Y=,I8,23H HUNDREDT		A226
1HS OF AN INCH.)		
ICD=ICD+1		A047
GO TO 52		A227
214 PRINT 1015		A229
1015 FORMAT(/,35H DATA EXCEEDED LENGTH OF INPUT BIN.)		A048
IC8=IC8+1		A230

```

GO TO 52
215 JE=JE/100 $ KE=KE/100 $ IP(1)=0
IF(SENSE SWITCH 2) 216,250
216 J=J+1
PRINT 1034, (IP(K),K=1,J)

**** SELECT SIGNIFICANT LEVELS FOR OUTPUT. THOSE POINTS THAT DEVIATE
***** FROM A LINE OF LINEARITY BETWEEN ADJACENT LEVELS BY 175
***** THOUSANDTHS OF AN INCH OR MORE ARE CONSIDERED SIGNIFICANT.
250 DO 251 J=1,5000
251 IM(J)=0
I=1 $ J=L=3 $ K=5 $ M=0 $ IM(2)=IP(2)
252 IF(IP(K).EQ.0) GO TO 257
N=JK=J
256 IM(L)=IP(N) $ IM(L+1)=IP(N+1) $ I=N $ J=I+2 $ K=J+2 $ M=0 $ L=L+2
GO TO 252
257 IF(IP(JK).EQ.IP(K-2).AND.IP(JK+1).EQ.IP(K-1)) GO TO 258
IF(IP(JK).EQ.IM(L-2).AND.IP(JK+1).EQ.IM(L-1)) GO TO 258
IM(L)=IP(JK) $ IM(L+1)=IP(JK+1) $ L=L+2
258 IM(L)=IP(K-2) $ IM(L+1)=IP(K-1)
DO 259 J=1,5000
259 IP(J)=0
IP(2)=IM(2) $ L=3
DO 261 K=3,4999,2
IF(IM(K+2).EQ.0.AND.IM(K+3).EQ.0) GO TO 260
IF(IM(K)-IM(K-2).EQ.IM(K+2)-IM(K).AND.IM(K+3)-IM(K+1).EQ.IM(K+1)-IM(K-1)) GO TO 261
IP(L)=IM(K) $ IP(L+1)=IM(K+1) $ L=L+2
GO TO 261
260 IP(L)=IM(K) $ IP(L+1)=IM(K+1) $ LL=L+1
GO TO 262
261 CONTINUE
LL=L+1
262 IF(SENSE SWITCH 2) 263,301
263 PRINT 1034, (IP(J),J=1,LL)

```

```

**** CONVERT INCREMENTAL VALUES AT SIGNIFICANT LEVELS TO DEPTH AND
**** TEMPERATURE.  TEMPERATURE VALUES ARE SCALED TO HUNDRETHS TIMES
**** ONE HUNDRED.  DEPTHS ARE SCALED TO THE NEAREST UNIT.
301 DO 312 J=2,LL,2
    IF(IP(J).LT.0) GO TO 305
    IF(IP(J).GT.IF(40)) IP(J)=IF(40)
    IF(IP(J).EQ.0) GO TO 303
    DO 302 K=3,37,2
        IF(IP(J).LE.IF(K)) GO TO 304
302 CONTINUE
303 IP(J)=IF(2)
    GO TO 308
304 IP(J)=(IP(J)*IF(K+1)-IF(K-2)*IF(K+1)-IP(J)*IF(K-1)+IF(K)*IF(K-1))/
    1(IF(K)-IF(K-2))
    IN(J)=IP(J)
    IF(IN(J)-IN(J)/10*10.GE.5) IN(J)=IN(J)+10
    IF(IP(J)-IP(J)/10*10.GE.5) IP(J)=IP(J)+10
    GO TO 309
305 IF(IP(J).LT.IG(40)) IP(J)=IG(40)
    DO 306 K=3,39,2
        IF(IP(J).GE.IG(K)) GO TO 307
306 CONTINUE
307 IP(J)=(IP(J)*IG(K+1)+IG(K)*IG(K-1)-IP(J)*IG(K-2)*IG(K+1))/
    1(IG(K)-IG(K-2))
308 IN(J)=IP(J)
    IF(IN(J)-IN(J)/10*10.GE.5) IN(J)=IN(J)+10
    IF(IP(J)-IP(J)/10*10.GE.5) IP(J)=IP(J)+10
309 IF(IP(J-1).LT.0) IP(J-1)=0
    IF(IP(J-1).EQ.0) GO TO 311
    IF(IP(J-1).GT.IH(40)) IP(J-1)=IH(40)
    DO 310 K=3,37,2
        IF(IP(J-1).LE.IH(K)) GO TO 311
310 CONTINUE
311 IP(J-1)=(IP(J-1)*IH(K+1)-IH(K-2)*IH(K+1)-IP(J-1)*IH(K-1)+IH(K)*
    1IH(K-1))/(IH(K)-IH(K-2))
    IN(J-1)=IP(J-1)

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```

IF(IN(J-1)-IN(J-1)/10*10.6E.5) IN(J-1)=IN(J-1)+10
IF(IP(J-1)-IP(J-1)/10*10.6E.5) IP(J-1)=IP(J-1)+10
IF(IP(1).NE.0) IP(1)=0
312 CONTINUE
K=LL-1 $ L=3 $ IN(1)=0
DO 313 J=3,K,2
IF(IN(J).EQ.IN(L-2)) GO TO 313
IN(L)=IN(J) $ IN(L+1)=IN(J+1) $ IP(L)=IP(J) $ IP(L+1)=IP(J+1)
L=L+2
313 CONTINUE
LL=L-1
**** PRINT DEPTHS AND TEMPERATURE DATA AND MAXIMUM DEVIATION.
401 IF(ID(13).LE.180) GO TO 452
DO 451 J=1,LL
451 A0(J)=FLOAT(IP(J))/10.0
GO TO 454
452 DO 453 J=1,LL
453 A0(J)=FLOAT(IN(J))/10.0
454 DO 455 J=2,LL,2
455 A0(J)=A0(J)/100.0
PRINT 1018
1018 FORMAT(/,2X,7(X,5HDEPTH,2X,5HTEMP ,2X),/)
WRITE(2,1040) LL
1040 FORMAT(4HL IS,I4)
PRINT 1019,(A0(J),J=1,LL)
WRITE(2,1019)(A0(J),J=1,LL)
1019 FORMAT(4X,7(F6.1,X,F6.3,2X))
PRINT 1020, JE,KE
1020 FORMAT(/,21H MAXIMUM DEVIATION X=,I2,4H, Y=,I2,23H HUNDREDTHS OF A
1N INCH.,/)
510 ENCODE(30,1021,IT(1)) (ID(K),K=16,37)
1021 FORMAT(X,R4,X,6R1,X,4R1,X,5R1,X,6R1)
IIS(IS)=IT(1) $ IIS(IS+1)=IT(2) $ IIS(IS+2)=IT(3)
IS=IS+3 $ ICT=ICT+1
GO TO 52
501 CALL FLIO(4LUNLD,ITAPE1)

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A524



PAUSE 1		A525
IF (SENSE SWITCH 1) 51,505		
505 END FILE 2		
506 REWIND 2		
PRINT 1000		
IS=IS-1		A543
PRINT 1023, (IIS(J), J=1, IS)		A544
1023 FORMAT(3R10)		A545
PRINT 1025, ICD		A057
1025 FORMAT(/,/,23H FAILED DEVIATION TEST ,I4)		A546
PRINT 1026, ICF		A059
1026 FORMAT(23H FORMAT ERRORS ,I4)		A547
PRINT 1027, ICA		A060
1027 FORMAT(23H ARRANGEMENT ERRORS ,I4)		A548
PRINT 1032, ICP		A061
1032 FORMAT(23H PARITY IN ID RECORD ,I4)		A549
PRINT 1033, ICR		A066
1033 FORMAT(23H PARITY IN TRACE RECORD,I4)		A550
PRINT 1028, ICS		A067
1028 FORMAT(23H SURFACE FLAGS MISSING ,I4)		A551
PRINT 1029, ICG		A062
1029 FORMAT(23H GRID TABLES MISSING ,I4)		A552
PRINT 1030, ICB		A063
1030 FORMAT(23H DATA EXCEEDED STORAGE ,I4)		A553
PRINT 1031, ICT		A064
1031 FORMAT(23H SATISFACTORY TRACES ,I4)		A554
STOP		A065
END		A555
		A556



```

15 IF(K.EQ.0) GO TO 17
   DO 16 KL=1,K
     IP(M)=IP(M-2)+K1/K*100 $ IP(M+1)=IP(M-1) $ M=M+2
16 CONTINUE
17 IF(L.EQ.0) GO TO 14
   LK=L-1
   DO 18 KL=1,LK
     IP(M)=IP(M-2) $ IP(M+1)=IP(M-1)+L1/L*100 $ M=M+2
18 CONTINUE
5 CONTINUE
   I=I+1
   GO TO 2
6 IP(M)=IP(M+1)=0 $ M=M-2
7 DO 8 J=1,5000
8 IB(J)=0
   I=N=3 $ IB(2)=IP(2)
   DO 11 J=I,M,2
     IF(J.LE.3) GO TO 10
     IF(IP(J).EQ.IP(J-4-K).AND.IP(J+1).EQ.IP(J-3-K)) GO TO 9
     GO TO 10
9 IP(J-1)=IP(J-2)=IP(J-3-K)=IP(J-4-K)=0
   K=K+4
   GO TO 11
10 K=0
11 CONTINUE
   DO 12 J=3,M,2
     IF(IP(J).EQ.0.AND.IP(J+1).EQ.0) GO TO 12
     IB(N)=IP(J) $ IB(N+1)=IP(J+1) $ N=N+2
12 CONTINUE
   IF(SENSE SWITCH 2) 20,21
20 M=M+1
   PRINT 101, (IB(J),J=1,M)
101 FORMAT(10(X,I10))
21 RETURN
   END

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* * * * * SUBROUTINE TRACEY(IE,IR,IB,ICA,ICS,ICR)
* * * * *
* * * * * TRACEY READS INTO MEMORY AN ERROR FREE TRACE RECORD. THE
* * * * * TERM ERROR FREE MEANS CORRECT FORMAT. NO SCALING OF DATA IS
* * * * * PERFORMED IN THIS ROUTINE.
* * * * *
* * * * * COMMON JD,IT(10),IH(40), IP(6000),ITAPE1(9),IK(37)
* * * * * DIMENSION IB(5000)
* * * * * 1 I=IE=IR=0
* * * * * DO 2 J=1,5000
* * * * * 2 IB(J)=0
* * * * * CALL FLIO(4LRBCD,ITAPE1,IB,5000)
* * * * * GO TO (7,4,9,7,9,7)ITAPE1
* * * * * 4 DO 5 J=1,5000
* * * * * IF(IB(J).EQ.0) GO TO 6
* * * * * DECODE(10,100,IB(J)) (IT(K), K=1,10)
* * * * * 100 FORMAT(10R1)
* * * * * DO 5 L=1,10
* * * * * IF(IT(L).EQ.38) GO TO 1
* * * * * IF(IT(L).NE.37) GO TO 5
* * * * * I=1
* * * * * 5 CONTINUE
* * * * * 6 IT(1)=LBYT(55,6,IB(1))
* * * * * IF(IT(1).EQ.39) GO TO 8
* * * * * CALL FLIO(4LBKSP,ITAPE1)
* * * * * PRINT 102
* * * * * 102 FORMAT(/,33H IMPROPER ARRANGEMENT OF RECORDS.)
* * * * * ICA=ICA+1
* * * * * 7 IR=1
* * * * * PRINT 103
* * * * * 103 FORMAT(/,25H PARITY IN READING TRACE.)
* * * * * ICR=ICR+1
* * * * * GO TO 10
* * * * * 8 IF(I.EQ.1) GO TO 10
* * * * * PRINT 101
* * * * * 101 FORMAT(/,22H SURFACE FLAG MISSING.)

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A566

```

ICS=ICS+1
IR=1
GO TO 10
  9 IE=1
10 RETURN
END

```

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* * * * *
* * SUBROUTINE COMP(J)
* *
* * COMP - CONVERTS CODED INTEGERS OF DIGITIZER OUTPUT TO ABSOLUTE
* * INTEGERS FOR SUMMING.
* *
* * COMMON JD,IT(10),IH(40), IP(6000),ITAPE1(9),IK(37)
* * DO 1 K=1,16
* * IF(IT(J).EQ.0) GO TO 3
* * IF(IT(J).EQ.IK(K))IA=K-1
* * IF(IT(J).EQ.IK(K)) GO TO 2
* * 1 CONTINUE
* * IT(J)=IT(J)-27
* * GO TO 3
* * 2 IT(J)=0
* * IF(IA.NE.0)IT(J)=-IA
* * 3 RETURN
* * END
* *
* *

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*	*		* * *	ENTRY DISBCD	A691
*	*		* * *		A692
*	*		* * *	DISBCD - CONVERTS INTERNATIONAL SHIPS CALL OR	A693
*	*		* * *	IDENTIFICATION LABEL OF REPORTING UNIT FROM CONSOLE	A694
*	*		* * *	DISPLAY CODE TO EXTERNAL BCD CHARACTERS. NO SCALING OF	A695
*	*		* * *	DATA IS PERFORMED IN THIS ROUTINE.	A696
*	*		* * *		A697
		VFD	36/OHDISBCD,24/0		A698
		BSSZ	1		A699
		SA1	JD		A700
		SB1	10B		A701
		RJ	=XCHARCVT		A702
		MX0	36		A703
		BX6	-X0*X6		A704
		SA6	JD		A705
		JP	DISBCD		A706
		BSS	0		A707
		USE	//		A708
		BSS	1		A709
		USE	*		A710
		END			A711

JD

## Input Data Cards

[illegible]



APPENDIX B

MICROTHERMAL STRUCTURE ANALYSIS FORTRAN SOURCE PROGRAM

FOR IBM 360/67

```

DIMENSION DATA(34), T(902), TEMP(902), Z(902), D(902), A(902), AMON(12)
DIMENSION ITI(4)
INTEGER TIME, DAY, YR, RL, DI, DATA, SHP
REAL*4 LAT, LONG
REAL*4 L1/4H /
REAL*8 ADATA(12)

C
DATA IN, IS, IE, IW, 'N', 'S', 'E', 'W' /
DATA RL, 'L', IS, /
DATA DI, 'D', /
DATA AMON, 'JAN', 'FEB', 'MAR', 'APR', 'MAY', 'JUNE', 'JULY',
* 'AUG', 'SEPT', 'OCT', 'NOV', 'DEC' /
DATA ITI, 'N001', /
DATA ITI, 'N002', 'N003', 'N004' /
DATA ADATA(12), 'R0X', 'M' /

C
KKK=0
II=0
YII=1

C
5 READ(4, 40, END=20, ERR=38) DATA
40 FORMAT(34A4)
C
41 WRITE(6, 41)(DATA(I), I=1, 25)
38 FORMAT(1X, 25A4)
38 IF(DATA(1), EQ, DI) GOTO 500
GO TO 5

C
500 READ(4, 1205, END=38, ERR=5) ID, SHP, DAY, MON, YR, TIME, LAT1, LAT2, INS,
* LONG1, LONG2, IEW, IREF, IGRID, IDXB
1205 FORMAT(A4, A4, 4X, 3I2, 4X, I4, 4X, 2I2, A4, I3, I3, I2, A4, 2(I3, I3), 3X, I2, 3IX
*)
BACKSPACE 4
READ(4, 501)(ADATA(I), I=1, 11)
501 FORMAT(4X, 11A8)
WRITE(6, 35) SHP, IT
IF(SHP, NE, IT) GO TO 5
READ(4, 40) DATA
KKK=KKK+1
REF=FLOAT(IREF)/10.0
LAT=FLOAT(LAT1)+FLOAT(LAT2)/60.0
IF(INS, EQ, IS) LAT=-LAT
LONG=FLOAT(LONG1)+FLOAT(LONG2)/60.0
IF(IEW, EQ, IW) LONG=-LONG

C
IF(DATA(1), EQ, BL) GOTO 42
BACKSPACE 4
GO TO 5

C

```

```

42 DO 1 J=1,902
   Z(J)=0.0
   TEMP(J)=0.0
   D(J)=0.0
   T(J)=0.0
1 CONTINUE
C
9999 WRITE(6,9999)KKK
      FORMAT(1X,'XBT NUMBER IS ',I5,2X)
107 WRITE(6,107) SHP,DAY,AMON(MON),YR, TIME,LAT,INS,LONG,IEW,RFFY
      *2X,I5,' TIME OF XBT DROP(GCT)',T25,A4,' DATE OF XBT DROP',T25,I2,2X,A4,
      *A4,' LONGITUDE',T25,F9.2,A4,' REFERENCE TEMPERATURE',T25,F5,2//)
1015 WRITE(6,1015)
      FORMAT(IH0,'Z(J) AND TEMP(J) ARRAYS',//)
C
DO 2 J=1,900,7
  JJ=J+6
  READ(4,1019,END=3,FRR=4)(DATA(1),(Z(1),TEMP(1),I=J,JJ))
1019 WRITE(6,1019)(DATA(1),(Z(1),TEMP(1),I=J,JJ))
      FORMAT(A4,7(F6.1,1X,F6.3,2X))
      IF(Z(JJ).LT.1.0)GOTO 3
      IF(Z(JJ).LT.Z(J))GOTO 3
      IF(DATA(1).FQ.01) GO TO 4
      IF(TEMP(J).LT.1.0)GOTO 4
2 CONTINUE
  GO TO 3
C
4 K=0
  BACKSPACE 4
  K=J
  GOTO 7
3 K=JJ
  IF(K.GT.902)K=902
7 SST=TEMP(1)
  ZMAX=Z(JJ)
C
DO 51 I=1,10
  IF(Z(J+I-2).GT.ZMAX)ZMAX=Z(J+I-2)
  IF((J+I-2).GE.99)GOTO 49
51 CONTINUE
C
40 BACKSPACE 4
  NT=J-3+I
C
C COMPUTING VALUES FOR EACH FOOT IN DEPTH FROM THE FINEST DIGITIZED
C INPUT XBT TRACE FROM FNWC

```

```

C
D(1)=0.0
T(1)=SST
K=IFIX(ZMAX+0.5)

I=1
DO 8 J=2,K
  D(J) = FLOAT(J-1)
  IF((D(J)+D(J+1)).LT.0.4) GO TO 9
  IF(Z(I+1).GE.D(J)) GO TO 50
  I=I+1
50 T(J)=TEMP(I)+(TEMP(I+1)-TEMP(I))/(Z(I+1)-Z(I))*(D(J)-Z(I))
  A(J-1)=T(J)-T(J-1)
  IF(J.GE.901)GO TO 9
  IF((Z(I+1)-Z(I)).LT.0.05) GO TO 9
  8 CONTINUE

C
9 N=J-1
KK=900
CALL DRAW(N,D,A,0,0,L1,ADATA,100.0,0.1,4.0,2.0,3.6,1,L)
CALL DRAW(KK,0,1,0,0,L1,ADATA,100.0,10.0,0,0,2.0,9,1,L)
WRITE(6,510)(J,A(J),J=1,N)
510 FORMAT(8(I5,1X,F8.5,2X))
18 II=II+1
IF(II.EQ.15)GO TO 20

C
CHECKING LATITUDE
ALTMX=70.0
ALTMN=10.0
IF(LAT.LT.ALTMN.OR.LAT.GT.ALTMX) GO TO 5
YMAX=15.0
ALGMN=120.0
ALGMX=180.0
CHECKING TO SEE IF EAST LONGITUDE
IF(LONG.LT.ALGMN.OR.LONG.GT.ALGMX) GO TO 5
ALGMN=-180.0
ALGMX=-110.0
CHECKING TO SEE IF WEST LONGITUDE
IF(LONG.LT.ALGMN.OR.LONG.GT.ALGMX) GO TO 5
19 GO TO 5

C
20 REWIND 4
III=III+1
IF(III.GT.4)GO TO 21
IT=ITI(III)
II=0
GO TO 5
21 STOP
END

```

APPENDIX C

JOB CONTROL LANGUAGE (JCL) FOR READING FNWC TAPES

//(Job name)	JØB (Acct. no., Job no., Section), '(Your name)'	Note 1
// EXEC	FØRTCLGP,REGION=100K,TIME.GØ=2	Note 2
//FØRT.SYSIN	DD *	

#### FØRTTRAN Source Deck

/*		Note 3
//GØ.FT06F001	DD SYSØUT=A,SPACE(CYL,6)	Note 4
//GØ.FT04F001	DD UNIT=2400-1,VØL=SER=NPSXXX,LABEL=(,NL),	Note 5
//	DCB=(DEN=1,RECFM=F,LRECL=136,BLKSIZE=136,TRTCH=ET), "	5
//	DISP=(ØLD,KEEP)	Note 5
//GØ.FT04F002	DD AFT=FT04F001,VØL=SER=NPSXXX,LABEL(2,NL),	Note 6
//	DCB=(DEN=1,RECFM=F,LRECL=136,BLKSIZE=136,TRTCH=ET), "	6
//	DISP=(ØLD,KEEP)	Note 6
//GØ.SYSIN	DD *	Note 7

DATA Cards, if any

/\* (Orange Card)

#### Notes

1. Standard JØB, green card, for program submission.
2. If not plotting or card punching, the FØRTCLGP can be changed to FØRTCLG.
3. Must be a white card.
4. Optional card for additional storage for output.
5. The XXX following NPS is the NPS tape number. These three cards are for reading the first file on the input tape. These cards assign input unit 4 for the source programs READ statements. Further note that the record length is 136 characters, all of which may be read. This is the standard record length from the CDC 3600.
6. For a third file to be read, these three cards must be repeated with F002 changed to F003 and LABEL(2,NL) changed to LABEL(3,NL) and so forth for additional files. Also the UNIT=2400-1 should be changed to AFT=FT04F001 for all files after the first file. If only one file is to be read, then these three cards are not required.
7. Not required if there are no input data cards.



## APPENDIX D

JOB CONTROL LANGUAGE (JCL) FOR DUMPING FNWC TAPE DATA

//(Job name)	JØB (Acct. no., Job no., Section), '(Your name)'	Note 1
//DUMPTAPE	EXEC PGM=IEBPTPCH	
//SYSPRINT	DD SYSØUT=A	
//SYSUT1	DD UNIT=2400-1,DISB=ØLD,LABEL=(,NL),VØLUME=SER=NPSXX,	Note 2
//	DCB=(DEN=1,RECFM=F,LRECL=136,BLKSIZE=136,TRTCH=ET)	Note 2
//SYSUT2	DD SYSØUT=A	
//SYSIN	DD *,DCB=BLKSIZE=80	
	PRINT MAXFLDS=1,STØPAFT=1000	Note 3
	RECORD FIELDS=(120)	Note 4

/\* (Orange Card)

#### Notes

1. Standard JØB, green card, for program submission.
2. If more than one file is on the tape then separate two cards for each file identified by file number by the file number in the LABEL (X,NL) where S is the file number, which is implied 1 when omitted.
3. The STØPAFT limits the number of lines of printed output, in this example 1000 lines is used before printing is terminated.
4. The field is recorded at the maximum amount that this program will dump which is 120 characters. If there are any characters between 120 and 133 in the records then this routine will not dump those characters.

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ABSTRACT

The background of microstructure and its effects on sound propagation is reviewed. The expendable bathythermograph (XBT) system and current digitizing procedures are evaluated to determine their adequacy in investigating vertical thermal microstructure. Several methods of microthermal analysis are proposed. Temperature gradient versus depth plots are used to analyze data from several ocean regions - Atlantic Coastal, Andaman Sea, Eastern North Pacific, and the northern boundary of the Gulf Stream. Analysis of these data suggest a water mass dependence of the thermal microstructure. The significance of the small-scale structure to Naval operations is discussed.



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Digitizing						
Temperature						
Temperature gradient						
Water mass						
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